WHAT IS THIS MANAGEMENT?

# CONTENTS

vii

CONTENTS

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# WHAT IS THIS

# MANAGEMENT?

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*WITH A FOREWORD BY*

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# FOREWORD

A NY contribution from an experienced and successful manager to our studies of the Art and Science of this vital subject deserves attention and thought, and this book will be of interest to those who are concerned in promoting good management. We are about to enter the post-war period, a largely uncharted world, when our people will ˙ ˙ subjected to a test which will call for the highest ˙alities of leadership, collaboration and goodwill. Mr. uckey endeavours with obvious sincerity to define what food management really is, and his ideas should provide a useful stimulant to all those who aspire to managerial rank.

MINISTER OF PRODUCTION

To
MY COLLEAGUES

# WHY THIS BOOK HAS BEEN WRITTEN

*Every tree is known by his own fruit. For of thorns men do not gather figs, nor of a bramble bush gather they grapes.* (LUKE vi, 44.)

I T was natural, in a period of unparalleled manufacturing activity such as World War No. 2 produced, that the chinks in our industrial armour should be discovered by the painful prods of the spears of emergency. It was natural also that our attempts to overcome these weak spots resulted often in "patchwork" repairs performed under conditions of stress and expediency rather than by the more stable but perforce more lengthy means.

In no sphere of industry was this more true than in the sphere of Management. Starting even prior to the war, at a period when our rearmament programme was first born, we began to suffer from the inattention paid by industry to the training of managers, i.e. men of vision, intelligence, and energy, trained deliberately to exercise their natural talents in the direction of planning, organization and execution.

With the growing tempo of the war, the industrial scene presented a spectacle of expansions and dispersals greater than anything previously attempted by any country, even Germany. Was it not to be expected that "management" would be the first item on our national shortage list?

The very people needing the greatest amount of selection and training were needed at once. Often they were pitchforked into their new responsibilities without adequate preparation.

It would be surprising if many fundamental mistakes had not been made. It would have been surprising if there had been no criticism of management. There were mistakes, there was criticism; many and much. It became fashionable among many uninformed groups to set up a managerial "Aunt Sally" at the slightest provocation, often without realizing their own shortcomings.

It is perhaps natural that the reaction of management was shown in the form of a counterblast of complaint

against its two obvious stumbling-blocks—the workers and the Government.

On the surface of the industrial front relative peace reigned. Strikes and lock-outs were reduced to a gratifying level, such was the basic loyalty of all parties to the common cause. Behind the scenes, however, there was considerable strain. Meetings of managers, meetings of workers, were loud in defamation of each other. The managers, under the great stress of reorganization, felt that the workers were talking too much of rights and not enough of responsibilities, while the workers, often frustrated by apparent inactivities and lack of knowledge, attempted to capitalize on the political and industrial trend.

The third leg of this somewhat shaky structure was that mixture of old and new called (collectively, if not colloquially) the State. In the first years it was always safe and often correct to direct invective against one or all of the supply departments when things went wrong. Internally these great departments presented a picture no less (and probably far more) patchy than the industrial managerial scene. War departments that had organized for war on a peace-time basis naturally found, like the industrial managers, that violent expansion was required, and the growing pains were considerable. The trouble was that the nucleus of Civil Servants were made of much more unpromising material (to wage war) than their counterparts in industry, while the recruits, drawn by salaries down to the usual Government levels, were equally unpromising. Add to these such extraordinary and reprehensible antics as the transfer to the North at a moment's notice of a major supply department, and it is obvious that we were hardly on the right road to real productive efficiency when war was declared.

Such was the position in the first year or so.

Slowly, but surely, by blood, toil and sweat, industry staggered to its feet, stretched, and really began to produce. Miracles were performed, often unfortunately miracles of improvisation rather than of organization, but nevertheless miracles.

2

Considering the relatively few real managers available the results were marvellous. Unfortunately, however, Management as a corporate body was not so articulate as Labour. It was not even a corporate body at all, and it was not therefore surprising that its efforts were unrewarded except by a species of glum mutual sympathy whenever more than one manager found himself in similar company. Indeed, I can remember no public commendation at all by any prominent leader until July, 1942, three odd years after war started, when Mr. Bevin stated in the House:

> I know of no more harassed persons in this war than works managers. A works manager has a terrible responsibility. He has to keep production going, and as a rule he has to be a good engineer, a good psychologist and a variety of other things. He is not always blessed with the most intelligent of directorates. He has a tremendous responsibility thrown upon him, and he is harassed daily by all those magnificent orders which, to the amusement of hon. members, are read out in the House from time to time. The works manager deserves more recognition than he has yet received. How much this country owes to him in this war, and how much we all owe to the mines manager and the works manager for overcoming problems which no Government department could have foreseen, and which no scientist or technician could have foreseen. Happily, there is a very close understanding between the factory department and works managers. There is much in common between them, because to a very large extent they are trained from the same personnel, and, therefore, understand not only each other's problems but each other's approach to the problems. This has been a great help in these difficult times in regard to the responsiveness of managements throughout the country. I made a joke about works managers not always being blessed with the best directorates. I always draw the distinction, and I think industry will have to face it in the future, between what I have called the working directorates who understand the actual operations of the job, and I put these working directorates in the same category as works managers. These two, with our Industrial Relations Department and with the Factory Department, have been able to overcome many difficulties.[1]

[1] Hansard, 22nd July, 1942.

Labour, in a period of rising demand and closer-knit trade union organization, cashed in as was only natural, and what to many managers was yet another strain on their already limited resources came into prominence, namely the "joint committee." "Interference with management" was the cry, and many managers had drastically to overhaul their mental and emotional processes. In many ways I consider the wide introduction of such committees brought about the most significant change in management philosophy and practice for many years. The theory of the "infallibility of management" was severely shaken, and following (and even still in the MIDDLE of) violent technical reorganization, managers found themselves faced with a personal and PERSONNEL reorganization which found many even less prepared. A problem in production was tangible. A problem in personnel relations was less so, therefore a natural development was the heavy demand for labour or personnel advisers. The Employment Records Office, often previously called the "labour" or "employment" department, now enlarged its scope to embrace the wider sphere of human relations. Many "welfare" departments were set up where, unfortunately all too often, the "crying shoulder" was considered a suitable alternative to real personnel activity.

The shortage of trained personnel advisers was even more acute than the previous managerial shortage. Not the least among our troubles was to define exactly what the new personnel technique really meant and how it should function. On the understanding that it is of basic interest to the manager, a considerable portion of this book is devoted to studying the relationships and requirements of man.

And so to the present, where happily there are many signs of a recognition that "management" in its broad sense has been seriously neglected as a subject worthy of research, study and training. What management is may be controversial. What we do know is that never would the intensive training of managers before the war have reaped

such reward as in the last few years. Let us see that the transitional period from war to peace does not suffer because we have failed to train those whose responsibility it will be to plan and perform our tremendous post-war tasks.

During the last few months several important pronouncements on management have been made by Government Spokesmen. Lord Woolton, Minister of Reconstruction, has said:

> Scientific research and efficiency of management: These must be the twin pillars on which reconstruction of our national trade must rest; . . . on both of them His Majesty's Government will lay the greatest emphasis and will give to both of them such encouragement as properly falls within their competence.[1]

Sir Stafford Cripps, Minister of Aircraft Production, speaking in Northern Ireland[2] said, *inter alia*:

> The different grades of management must look upon their job as a professional job, and one for which a high degree of training is required. There is, I believe, a great need for some strong central institute of management which can build up the necessary professional and educational standards for the profession.

My last reference is to "Employment Policy"[3] in which the Government repeatedly stresses the importance of good management in reaching and maintaining that high standard of efficiency without which we cannot achieve full employment and a rising standard of living.

With the creation by the Government of a national and international background in line with such avowed sentiments the managers must thereafter assume full responsibility. I hope this book will be a small contribution to those who are willing to face the task. It is dedicated to those who believe not that "all men are equal" but that it's what we're equal *to* that counts.

[1] Sixty-seventh Annual Luncheon on 24th April, 1944, of the United Wards Club of the City of London.
[2] *The Times*, 19th August, 1944.
[3] H.M.S.O. Cmd. 6527, May, 1944.

## WHO ARE THE MANAGERS?

*A rose by any other name would smell as sweet.*
SHAKESPEARE.

SHAKESPEARE was no doubt right in the sphere of flowers, and there are many who, while not bearing the title of manager still come within the managerial class covered by this book. Rank and file, foremen, superintendents, all at various times and with varying emphasis and language refer to "the management" without attempting (or indeed often being able) to define WHO they mean.

Let us look at the definition of "manager"; my dictionary tells me a manager is "one who manages"!—how delightfully simple, but after a brief pause we begin with horrifying clarity to realize one fundamental thing. This is that the function of management is one performed daily, not only by that vague body known as "the management" BUT BY EVERY SINGLE PERSON TO WHOM IS DELEGATED THE CONTROL OF SOME OTHER PERSON'S ACTIVITIES.

The charge-hand "manages" his group, however small; the foreman "manages" his department, and so on. And so what was simple is now complex; what was a study of a few now becomes a study of many. Well, there's nothing like starting off on the right definition, and later on in this book we must be very careful to remember that we can't start low enough, or early enough, when we concern ourselves with training for management. In the meantime, let us stick to the more popular conception and see who the so-called "managers" are.

The first step is to list those more general titles employing this word in their make-up. Here are some:

> Managing Director.
> General Manager.
> General Works Manager.
> Works Manager.

6

Production Manager.

Office Manager.

Departmental Manager (such as Personnel, Canteen, Purchasing).

Shop Manager (such as a meat shop or machine shop).

These are in regular use. There are, however, special cases where "Managers" (I still take the popular definition) are not called "Managers" at all; for instance, in Royal Ordnance factories the individual in charge is usually called the "Superintendent." This practice is also followed in certain industrial firms. A variant may be "General Superintendent." Again, the term "Chief Clerk" is sometimes used to define one who elsewhere would be "Office Manager."

In the commercial sphere one does not find the term "manager" used to any great extent except perhaps Office Manager. The higher officials have a fairly wide range of titles and would probably describe themselves as administrators rather than managers. I don't know why it is but there seems to be a certain snob-value in the word administrator, although I personally prefer to be called a manager. Perhaps it depends on your title; if you are in a position of some authority and are not called a manager then no doubt the title of administrator gets your vote as the superior responsibility.

Actually, the dictionary gives a cross-reference between the two terms and I don't want to draw a red herring across our path by attempting to prove that one or the other is of higher quality. I do, however, want to point out that in all our discussions during the last few years very few refer to the necessity for greater training in administration, but stress the importance of management. Even such bodies as the Institute of Industrial Administration continually use the word management, and so I will use it here, although I will not quarrel with those who, although acting as managers within my definition, still prefer to call themselves administrators.

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Turning to Government, or semi-Government, departments, you may find the term "Controller" used, and

possibly "Controller-General." The title "Director" is often used, such as "Director of Aircraft Production," and this is of course broken down into "Assistant Director" or "Deputy Director." It's all very confusing.

It would make our task of definition easier if we took industrial practice alone into account. One purpose of this book, however, is to show that good management training will also pay handsome dividends in other spheres. Indeed, believing as I do that overriding State control will become more and more a feature of our industrial set-up, it seems essential to me that we should not attempt to lay down one set of principles for industry and another for the State. The segregation of industrial and State managerial practices into idea-tight compartments must be discouraged; must, indeed, be eliminated.

It is obvious, therefore, that in dealing with managers we should deal with a much wider field than industry. It is obvious also that we should not confine ourselves only to the "top liners" in dealing with the broad question of management. THE MOST IMPORTANT THING TO REALIZE IS THAT THE SCOPE OF MANAGEMENT COVERS EVERY SPHERE WHERE THE ACTIVITIES OF ONE PERSON AFFECT OR BEAR UPON THE ACTIVITIES OF OTHERS.

In this definition every marriage implies management (by whom I won't say!). Every family becomes a "manageable" institution. Every shop, every office, whether it be post office or factory office, must be managed.

### THE VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL CONCEPTION OF MANAGEMENT

We have heard much of the horizontal and vertical organization structure of industry. Here and now I make the plea that "management" in its broad sense be considered along similar lines. Shown diagrammatically we have a picture as in Fig. 1, where a pyramid is erected, each face covering a field of national activities with "management" responsibilities to a lesser or greater degree vested in those in charge at the various levels of responsibility. On the left face we portray some spheres

of influence in the "public" field, with corresponding "industrial" spheres on the other.
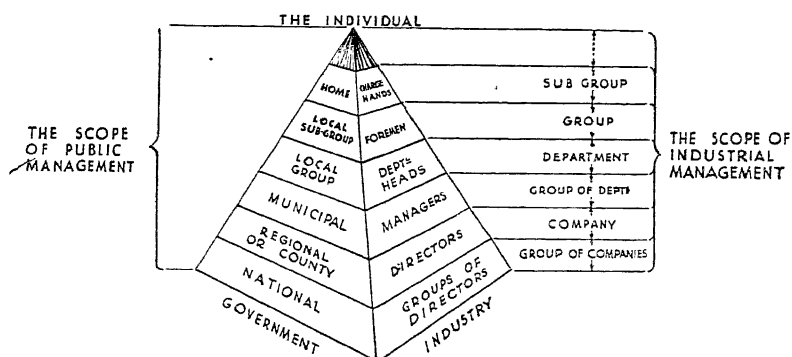


Fig. 1. The depth and breadth of management.

I cannot emphasize too fully the importance of taking a broad conception of management. It seems to me that unless this is done we shall never really achieve our purpose, *which is to select candidates and to promote in them a smooth absorption of "management" training and techniques from the smallest level of responsibility to the greatest.* Only by adopting this view shall we set up our training and selection plans comprehensively enough to "catch 'em young and train 'em right."

It has been too often thought (if thought has been expended at all) by those of us who ought to know better, that a man must reach a mature age and responsibility before we consider he is worthy of selection and (occasionally) training as a manager. What we have not realized is that most "management" techniques are nothing more than the "lengthened shadow" of every day commonplace activities, and that training later on is more difficult almost as the square of the candidate's age. It would be silly to assume that no special techniques of management need to be learned later on. To anyone climbing up the rungs of the ladder the changing emphasis from technical or functional activities to organizational and administrative activities is noticeable. It will also be appreciated by the same climbers that in one's earlier years it was (and

9

is) physically impossible to absorb the technical knowledge so necessary at that time and in the same period to cover management training except in an introductory sense. There must, however, be a place in the junior syllabus for those introductory subjects which are the "core" of management. Later training and experience will clothe this core with layers of knowledge and experience just as the sapling expands outwards and upwards into the mature tree.

But I am anticipating. Later on I want to deal in greater detail with this problem of training and selection Right here I am supposed to be answering the question— "Who are the managers?" Well, I've given you a list of many titles to choose from, reasonably definite in industrial circles, not quite so clear in commercial circles and— well, rather less clear in Government spheres.

I have also tried to convince you that you would be wrong anyhow in assuming that this rather poorly defined upper bunch form the complete structure of management, or are the only "managers." I will even say that they are not necessarily the most important. This may sound like heresy, but let me explain. Earlier on I used the phrase "lengthened shadow." You know what happens when you interrupt a light? Well, the same thing tends to happen when you have an interruption or a bottleneck in the expanding management structure.
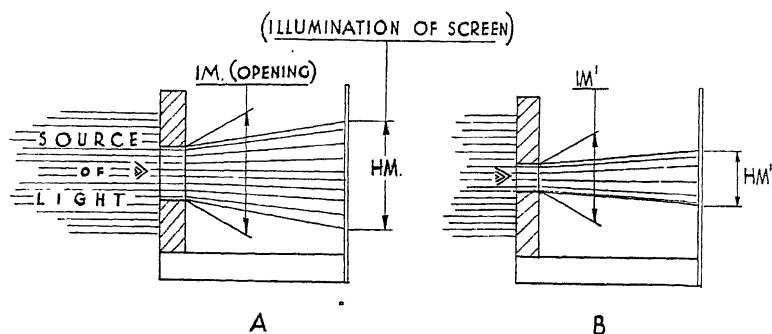


Fig. 2. The effect of an intermediate bottleneck on managerial effectiveness.

In this diagram I. M. represents the quality of intermediate

management which, if restricted, also restricts the effectiveness of H.M. which represents higher management. This interruption has occurred in the right hand diagram B.

You may remark that really effective upper management should see these intermediate restrictions and remove them. This assumes, however, that we start off with all effective top liners. I'm not going to assume anything of the sort because (a) it's not universally true, and (b) I am much more concerned with the future managers than the present, and I hope other managers are also.

## SUMMARY

(a) "Managers" are not necessarily only those normally known by that title.

(b) There is no common definition of "management" among the broad national activities such as industry, commerce and public administration.

(c) It is highly desirable that common management principles and practices should be developed and practised among the national activities mentioned in (b).

(d) The conception of management is at present too narrow and should cover every sphere where the activities of one person affect or bear upon the activities of another.

(e) There should be a place in the junior syllabus for those introductory subjects at the core of management.

(f) We should be much more concerned with training and selection of future managers than those who have already arrived.

# WHAT ARE THE QUALITIES OF A GOOD MANAGER?

*Pure wisdom hath no certain path.*
KIPLING.

IN the previous chapter we asked "Who are the managers?" It was found difficult to answer, mainly I think because we have not yet defined *Management*. I think that before we can answer the question at the head of this chapter we must examine more closely the fundamental conception of management.

Ask a range of people to define management and you will get as wide a range of answers. I believe it is worth while attempting a fairly simple definition, one which is easy to remember and easy to appreciate, not only by the top categories but by all of those more junior members of management, coming within the scope of Chapter One.

The definition I am seeking, if my conception of management "depth" is correct, must be one that will cover fully all the categories of managers from the managing director down to the leader of the small group.

What is this common and simple characteristic of management? Surely nothing more or less than an ability to "take the chair." Don't try to sell the book at this stage without giving me a chance to elaborate on this thought.

"Management is —————— taking the chair.

Good management is ————— taking the chair well."

I will expand these statements more fully shortly. At this moment I want to quote an extract that may support my views:

"There is a sort of New England town meeting going on inside our heads all the time. The animal, the savage, and the child are sitting on the benches, eager members of the assembly. They debate every question that arises. Each wants every question settled his way. All sorts of old opinions, dead doctrines, ancient hatreds, wily superstitions, unworthy

loyalties, and foolish fears are also there. But the educated man is the chairman of this meeting in his brain. The effectiveness of every man's life depends upon his being a good chairman. He must see to it that the animal, the savage, and the child do not run away with the meeting. He must see to it that the real 'order of business' for the say is not upset or set aside by the hatreds, the superstitions, the fears, and the outworn opinions that are in the meeting."[1]

Mr. Dennison is referring particularly to the "inner conflicts" of man, but isn't it true that everything he says can be expanded into the wider sphere of man's "external activities"? I think so. Whether in the broad administrative field of the board-room or in the departmental meeting, progress is achieved only by ensuring that "the animal, the savage and the child do not run away with the meeting." The chairman, whether he be director or assistant foreman, has, within his scope and sphere, to exercise the broad functions of management if he is to get results.

Here is another quotation backing up my views, and although it deals with Safety Committee effectiveness, it emphasizes the importance of chairmanship, and would read quite as logical if the word "management" were used as an alternative:

> However, even provided that the committee is correctly constituted and set up by a keen management which fully appreciates its proper functions in the safety organization, it is possible for a committee to fail. Upon examination the main reasons will usually be found to be a matter of personalities. A committee requires direction and driving power. A mere collection of individuals brought together round a table will not be able to achieve much unless it has a chairman who has a very clear idea of what the committee is required to do and who is prepared to encourage all the individual members to contribute to the discussions and make suggestions. A dull chairman can kill a committee. A keen chairman can, at the very first meeting, knit together the comparative strangers who sit round the table. He can suggest

[1] *Organization Engineering*, by Henry Dennison. (Published in U.S.A.)

subjects for discussion, he can bridge awkward pauses, he can always have a few items of business up his sleeve in case a meeting tends to flag.[1]

## THE DUTIES OF "THE CHAIR"

What are the obligations; the duties of "the chairman"? Here is a list of the more important:

1. He must earn respect.
2. He must respect the views of others.
3. He must control.
4. He must co-ordinate.
5. He must distinguish between "opinion" and fact.
6. He must control the scope of "discussion."
7. He must lead, not follow.
8. He must record progress.

Few would deny that a "chairman" in possession of qualities capable of achieving these results would also be a good "manager."

I think it would be a good idea to break down my eight requirements into the individual qualities or qualifications necessary to achieve these requirements, and *for closer analysis, I am segregating them into three main categories*:

A. Personal.   B. Organizational.   C. Technical.

### 1. *He must earn respect*

One might well say that success in achieving the seven other requirements would earn the respect. This is true to a great extent. Some earn respect because of purely "personal" qualities, other through technical or organizational qualities. In this matter-of-fact world, probably many gain the confidence of their fellow-men through the two latter than by "personal" qualities alone  We probably remember more rogues than saints. In "personal" qualities I include, by the way, such qualities as clean living, an appreciation of national and industrial pride in excess of personal gain, good manners, a strong sense of justice tempered by mercy, and other such qualities, which do not necessarily depend on organizational or technical

[1] "Do Safety Committees work"—*Safety News*, April, 1943.

qualifications to find expression. I think therefore that we can break No. 1 down in the following manner:

| Requirement | Qualities | Category |
|---|---|---|
| No. 1. He must earn respect | Clean-living | Personal |
| | Strong "social" sense | |
| | Good manners | |
| | Sense of justice | |
| | Sense of mercy | |
| | Reasonable humour | |
| | Friendliness | |
| | Cheerfulness | |

## 2. *He must respect the views of others*

Some will argue that this is a quality coming under No. 1 above. Partly true, but in my experience important enough to be considered on its own. An essential part of chairmanship or management is to get the best out of others. If people are present at a meeting, whether a debating society, a works committee, or a mass meeting of workers, they are there because of their particular interest in the subject-matter, and each one may be capable of adding value to the proceedings. No chairman, no manager worthy of the name must neglect opportunity (within the limitation of time and scope) of letting as many brains as possible contribute to the common problem. The broad and difficult problem of "consultation" will be discussed later in this book, but right here I merely wish to record the fact that many a meeting has become a "monologue" inside and an "epilogue" outside.

| Requirement | Qualities | Category |
|---|---|---|
| 2. He must respect the views of others | Tolerance | Personal |
| | Recognition of potential value in others | |

## 3. *He must control the personnel*

"The animal, the savage and the child" must not run away with the meeting. Neither must any individual nor collection of individuals run away with the company or

department for which the manager is responsible. Anyone who has taken the chair at a meeting on controversial matters will remember the sudden transition from calm to storm, the riding of which calls for all the ability of the captain.

Control implies not necessarily the use of the "hammer" but basically an appeal to the "personal" qualities of those present, which will, in the large majority of cases, give better results. The important thing is to know how much "rope" to give, how to blend firmness and tolerance, so as to create an overriding respect that will keep the controversial meeting on a reasonably even keel.

| Requirement | Qualities | Category |
|---|---|---|
| 3. He must control | Firmness | Personal |
|  | Calmness in emergency |  |

### 4. *He must co-ordinate*

The word "co-ordinate" has become very popular in recent years. Later on I will attempt an analysis of "co-ordination." In the meantime I wish merely to say that the ability to "co-ordinate" the activities of members of the group, or briefly "to direct uncommon interests towards a common objective" is a vital one. Little good ever comes from a "meeting" until the "objective" is agreed by all. Most chairmen and managers, at one time or another, have fallen into the trap of assuming that the "objective" is acknowledged by all when in fact there is no such unanimity. The result has been that the true objective has been obscured by "local fog."

The growth of "joint consultation" has brought with it a much greater frequency of meetings on "controversial" subjects. Those who have "managed" in industry for a decade or so will know how true this is, how much time is now spent in reconciling and co-ordinating "group" and "individual" outlooks. The strain involved probably increases as the square of the number of people involved in the meeting, and probably as the cube where the representatives are very mixed in quality. Supervisory and

managerial meetings have at least the virtue that all the participants are up to a certain standard, both technically and in common outlook and purpose. This is not yet the case (at least rarely) in the "joint" meetings which to-day occupy much so time.

I believe this situation will improve, but nevertheless the ability to co-ordinate both his own activities and those of others must be one of the most marked characteristics of the successful chairman or manager, in whatever sphere he operates.

| Requirement | Qualities | Category |
|---|---|---|
| 4. He must co-ordinate | Co-operativeness and team spirit | 50% Personal |
| | Ability to clarify the objective | 50% Organiza-tional |
| | Organizational ability to provide framework for guiding indivi-dual action towards objective | |

### 5. He must distinguish between "opinion" and "fact"

How much time and talk is expended without a clear understanding of the problem, without checking or verifying the statements made. I remember only a few days ago a discussion among several senior men about the number of components of a certain type required to make the "master schedule." Each thought his own figure correct and had been taking action on this individual view. In fact no one was correct, and no one had thought to get a positive figure from the drawing office. Many discussions had taken place on "alleged" shortages without a true knowledge of the "facts" which were easily attainable. I estimate that 50 per cent. of our workaday discussions are merely throat exercises, made necessary by our failure to have the facts available when discussion is anticipated.

In my experience those individuals who have attempted to train their minds in logical thought such as mathematical

or analytical exercises are the least guilty in this respect. The "narrow" type of mind with a smattering of basic knowledge is the worst. This is the type of person who will tell you that "figures can prove anything" or by implication: "figures can prove nothing." Largely, I believe, because he does not like to face the facts which usually emerge from close analysis.

| Requirement | Qualities | Category |
|---|---|---|
| 5. He must distinguish between "opinion" and "fact" | Analytical ability<br>Orderly mind<br>"Reflection" before "expression"<br>Basic training in a technical subject. | 50% Organizational<br>50% Technical |

## 6 *He must control the scope of the discussion*

Give a meeting enough "rope" and it will hang itself. The good chairman or manager must limit the length of each "individual rope" to avoid this suicidal tendency. How many of us have experienced the occasion when, with disconcerting suddenness, the discussion has fallen off the edge of the agenda. There is considerable skill in keeping within the agenda or scope of the meeting. This is far more a matter of organization than anything else. The agenda must be prepared carefully and in logical sequence, and in ample time for preliminary action by all. Those who are responsible for presentation must prepare a comprehensive statement with controversial material carefully thrashed out beforehand.

The "rules" or "standards" of the meeting must be available for reference and must be adhered to, subject to the necessity for occasional modification from time to time in the light of changing circumstances.

Brief consideration will show that these requirements hold good, whether in the departmental meeting or the board room. Like golf, the "rules" may be "local" in departmental procedure, or "basic" rules, generally named "company policy," which may become more operative in the board room. Nevertheless, there must be rules

which guide and assist the chairman and members just as railway lines guide the train and enable the operating staff to concentrate the better on other things.

| Requirement | Qualities | Category |
|---|---|---|
| 6. He must control the scope of the discussion | Courage<br>Forethought<br>Firmness<br>An interest in the characteristics of those taking part<br>Organizational ability<br>A knowledge of basic technical principles involved | 25% Personal<br>50% Organizational<br>25% Technical |

## 7. *He must lead, not follow*

This is partly accomplished if the "personal" qualities of the chairman or manager are marked. In such circumstances members will respect the "chair," and the progress of the discussion will be all the more marked because it will be conducted without too much of the interruptions and "heckling" prevalent at many discussions where respect is weak. The chairman or manager must be a *"leader"* without being too far ahead of the others. He must stimulate the discussion whenever it dulls, unless of course it has reached a reasonable conclusion, when he must finalize.

At all times he must watch closely for trends which will tend to obscure the "objective" and by throwing a hint here, a suggestion there, will guide or "canalize" the discussion towards the logical end. He will avoid an "across the table" dialogue and will not interrupt unless it is really necessary, always remembering that with varying and diverging views, "compromise" is not often completely satisfactory. It is definitely his responsibility to see that the meeting proceeds towards a conclusion which is on a firm foundation and commonly acceptable rather than one which, to use racing parlance, is "born of weariness out of stalemate!"

There is great opportunity at every meeting to show qualities of leadership, not the least of which is to avoid, as some chairmen don't, opening the meeting by stating that "I don't know anything about the subject, but no doubt everything," etc. . . . It is still a great advantage to know your subject!

| Requirement | Qualities | Category |
|---|---|---|
| 7. He must lead, not follow | Leadership | 50% Person |
| | A knowledge of the basic technical principles involved | 50% Techni |

### 8. *He must record progress*

A popular song once said that "the music goes round and around and comes out here." This fitting (and, we hope, tuneful) climax is not always recorded at the end of a discussion or in the minutes of the meeting. So much is often said, so little finalized; so many discussions have ended wearily in unsatisfactory compromise.

Here is where the chairman or manager can bring to a useful climax all the preliminaries of the past. "Out of debate must come decision"—this axiom should be on the desk of every manager.

There are two important points to watch:

The first is that the *right* moment must be chosen to summarize and finalize the discussion. The second is that a majority decision should be registered as a partial failure against the chairman.

Dealing with No. 1, it will be appreciated by all with experience that the chairman's comments will be all the more respected if he has avoided personal controversy during the discussion, beyond a hint here, a suggestion there, but rather waits until those who will speak have spoken and then summarizes objectively and firmly in such a way that the secretary can record a clear-cut conclusion.

The second point is that voting should be avoided where possible. There are two chief ways in which this can be done:

(*a*) By compromise.
(*b*) By integration.

Compromise often means that *neither* side is satisfied.

Integration means that the best of both points of view are fused into a solution acceptable to all. Mary Follett refers to this principle at some length and one simple example at this stage (I will deal more fully with it later) is enough. The waitress at our works canteen said to me yesterday: "Rice pudding or rhubarb tart?" Both were recommended, and both I enjoy. Which was it to be? I would order one and then wish I had ordered the other. The result was *not* compromise, but integration—I ordered some of each!

Happy the chairman who comes from a meeting feeling that real progress has been made. Happy the secretary who can record clearly and definitely the *decisions* reached and the *actions* to be taken by all who were called upon to implement the decisions.

| Requirement | Qualities | Category |
|---|---|---|
| 8. He must record progress | Firmness | 25% Personal |
| | Analytical ability | 50% Organiza- |
| | Clear-cut speech | tional. |
| | A knowledge of the basic technical features involved | 25% Technical |
| | Ability to delegate responsibility | |
| | Organizational ability | |

Well, I have completed a rather sketchy analysis of my ideal chairman or manager. Let us summarize the findings and see what manner of man this paragon will be. I am going to give equal rating to each of my eight "requirements," and where a particular quality like "organizational ability" is mentioned more than once, to put it down once only in my summary list of "qualities."

From this we obtain:

THE IMPORTANT REQUIREMENTS OF A MANAGER:

1. He must be capable of earning respect.
2. He must respect the views of others.
3. He must be capable of controlling personnel.

4. He must co-ordinate departments and individuals, including himself.
5. He must distinguish between "opinion" and fact.
6. He must define and control the "policy" of the "group."
7. He must lead, not follow, his subordinates.
8. He must show results.

THESE REQUIREMENTS CAN BE GROUPED INTO THREE MAIN QUALITIES:

*Personal*—62% rating.

    Clean living.
    Strong communal sense.
    Good manners.
    Sense of justice.
    Sense of mercy.
    Good health (not previously mentioned, but desirable).
    Reasonable humour.
    Friendliness.
    Cheerfulness.
    Tolerance.
    A keen interest in "personnel" problems.
    Recognition of potential value in others.
    Firmness.
    Calmness in emergency.
    Co-operativeness.
    Courage.
    Leadership, or inspirational quality.
    Clear-cut speech.

*Organizational*—25% rating.

    Ability to define the "objective".
    Ability to build a "framework" of organization.
    Ability to organize and co-ordinate the activities of personnel within the "framework."
    Analytical ability.
    An orderly mind.
    Ability to delegate responsibility.

*Technical*—13% rating.

    Basic training and practice in an appropriate technical subject.
    A sound appreciation of fundamental technical principles.

Well, there is my assessment of the qualities required in a manager if he is to be successful. Let me summarize them:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| "Personal" qualities | .. | .. | 62% rating. |
| Organizational qualities | .. | .. | 25% ,, |
| Technical qualities | .. | .. | 13% ,, |
| | Total | 100% | ,, |

These ratings are of course comparative, and not absolute. Taking my broad conception of the manager it is obvious that we should look for the same *relative* qualities when appointing a junior foreman as when looking for a senior manager. The *standard* required, the "span" of responsibilities covered, may differ widely, but not necessarily the relative percentages, although I shall qualify this later when dealing with the technical training of managers.

### WHAT DO WE LEARN FROM THIS ANALYSIS?

Firstly, we confirm what had been realized by more and more people in recent years, viz. that practical or technical experience is not the dominating quality required to make a good manager. I am more and more convinced that this is true, even in the junior grades down to charge-hand level. *I want my 13 per cent. "technical" most definitely*, but there will always be a tremendous amount of such knowledge available waiting to be utilized or directed by management into useful channels. There will always be more people who will remain in basically practical or theoretical pursuits than in "management." There will be even more who should!

Secondly, we require quite a good rating to pass in "organizational" qualities. The function of organization is one I will discuss much more thoroughly later on, but in the meantime I will refer you to the various "qualities" under this heading on page 22. The art and science of organization is coming (and rightly so) into its own, and it must be appreciated and then studied by everyone aspiring to managerial status in the future.

# THE PERSONAL QUALITIES OF THE MANAGER

*We are all cast in the same mould—but some are mouldier than others.*
ANON.
*Would some power the Giftie gie us—to see ourselves as ithers see us.*
R. BURNS.

ONE day I heard someone say of me "he'll give you a square deal." That remark gave me more satisfaction than any salary increase because it seemed to crown with a seal of approval the many activities, decisions, outlooks, which I had helped to crystallize over previous years.

I have since, from time to time, heard rather less favourable comments, which have prevented me from achieving a feeling of complacency, but then, we cannot satisfy all the people all the time!

In Chapter 2 I attempted to analyse the qualities that make up a successful manager, and you will have noted the high rating I gave to "personal" qualities. Here I want to discuss these qualities in greater detail. Let us list them:

(*a*) Clean living.
(*b*) Strong communal sense.
(*c*) Good manners.
(*d*) Sense of justice and fairness.
(*e*) Good health.
(*f*) Reasonable humour.
(*g*) Friendliness.
(*h*) Cheerfulness.
(*i*) Tolerance.
(*j*) A keen interest in "personal" problems.
(*k*) Recognition of potential value in others.
(*l*) Calmness in emergency.
(*m*) Co-operativeness.
(*n*) Courage.
(*o*) Clear-cut speech.
(*p*) Leadership or inspirational qualities.

Now, before you say it for me, I agree right away that

the paragon who rated high on every one of these charac-
teristics probably died before you could get his services.
Some might say he never lived! Well, that doesn't prevent
us from isolating the qualities we would like in our mana-
gerial personnel and endeavouring to get those who have a
good score by mortal standards. Each one of the sixteen
qualities I have listed (and I don't claim they are complete
—merely dominant) is desirable in more than average
measure and provides us at least with a check list against
which we can rate our potential managers. It may be
that we must put up with *less* than average in certain
qualities, but at least we know, by the process of analysis,
what we are risking, and can always therefore attempt to
improve these weaknesses *with the assistance of the individual*
who, in most cases, would be only too glad to have his
weaknesses discussed if improving them would lead to
him being given greater responsibilities. He who resented
a reasonable approach on such a basis would probably
show a poor score anyhow on certain characteristics.

### THE PERSONAL AUDIT

I believe it would be a good thing for most of us if we
occasionally had a superior tell us exactly what his views
were on "us." We have a financial audit; occasionally a
physical audit; we discuss production performances, sales
trends, etc., usually in relation to the technical aspects
that may be involved. If we talk of persons, it is more
often in the third person, and very rarely (except in
relation to something *specific* that may have gone wrong)
do we talk to a subordinate about *himself*. We sometimes
go along for years being irritated by a certain person when
an occasional informal "personal audit" would make for
greater mutual understanding.

Some will say that most "personal" qualities cannot be
changed, but with certain reservations I believe, from
experience, that if the more fundamental ones are present
in reasonable weight, there are others, particularly those
that tend to irritate us, that CAN be improved by an
occasional audit.

25

Don't, by the way, assume that this is a one-way proposition always. The *subordinate* may have a hidden grouse which might be brought out and dispersed if an occasion was made for a "frank talk session."

I want now to discuss briefly each of the characteristics listed on page 24:

(*a*) *Clean living*. Man is mortal, and pedestals are not comfortable; in fact, it is undesirable that man should attempt to sit on one. Nevertheless, within the confines of his business the manager should see that he sets, and requires, a standard which is in line with reasonable moral standards. I read a novel recently where the assistant manager, after chasing the girl for weeks through various departments, finally clutched her within the confines of his office and his arms. This sensational situation was created by a very well-known author who, I hope, doesn't assume that this is the normal conduct of assistant managers.

I heard a few weeks ago that a worker in one of our factories told the others "that all the managers had their fancy bits in the factory." Flattering to our physical charm, but definitely a slight on our managerial qualities. At about the same time a foreman was found to be writing to a girl in an adjacent department about her friendship with *his* girl friend in that department. Very foolish, and definitely not done by a real supervisor.

Quite emphatically, the supervisors and managers should not let down the side by such actions, which so often follow the setting up of "favourites." As one supervisor aptly remarked, the only favourites he had were "those who did their job properly." By the way, "the confines of the business" include, in my view, the social functions therein. In the next chapter I will discuss the integration of social and working conditions, but here I just want to say that the spectacle of senior people getting drunk and dreamy at the works social is rather poor. "Let your hair down" at times, by all means, but don't "let the side down." Incidentally, one standard of measurement I have heard is: "How would I like him to associate with my children?"

(*b*) *Strong communal sense*. I have just mentioned that I shall discuss more thoroughly in later chapters the "social" aspects of industry. Here I want to say that any manager who hasn't a well-developed "social community" interest is hardly likely to control successfully his own "internal industrial community." He should take a real interest in social conditions and legislation, the influence of politics on the individual and the group, and a full realization that *man* (and his requirements) in the social sphere is very much the same man (and his requirements) in the industrial sphere.

Too often industrial managers have poured scorn on the politicians without really appreciating that each are complementary to the other, and that the solution is mutual understanding through co-operation rather than misunderstanding through isolation.

(*c*) *Good manners*. Good manners are really much more important than clean shoes, but the latter get polished up more often. Here are a few examples of bad manners I have seen among senior executives, where a better example would have created a better impression:

1. Butting in on discussions on the presumed basis that "my time is more important than their and it's as well they should know it."
2. Calling subordinates out of a meeting when the matter could quite easily have waited until the meeting concluded.
3. Failing to give to subordinate women workers the courtesies that are normally extended to women.
4. Getting someone called on the 'phone and then keeping that person waiting.

(*d*) *Sense of justice and fairness*. Listening to the other fellow's point of view is perhaps the best expression of this quality. In the opening sentences of this chapter I referred to the satisfaction derived from being told that one gives a square deal. More often than not this is given when one recognizes that although the evidence may be damning, it still may be one-sided.

The delinquencies or troubles *of one ordinary person* may not seem of great importance to the manager of a large

27

company, but the ripples from a small splash may spread over a large pool, and it is surprising how many people quickly hear of right or wrong decisions (particularly the latter).

I remember the recent case of a junior setter who, having decided to part company with us, expressed a desire to see me. I had never spoken to him before, but having received a request through his supervisor I saw him and listened. In the end I saw seven other people before I finally saw the setter again and told him my judgment of his case. The time was well taken as I subsequently learned that the others in the department were very satisfied with the fairness and thoroughness of the investigation and, equally important, of what was proved to be the right decision of the man's own supervisor, whose methods had previously been questioned by the setter.

Such an apparently disproportionate amount of time spent on one person may be irksome, but is one of the best ways I know of really renewing touch with the details, and also creating a sense of fairness. Incidentally, just in case you might think that all I do is to look into such cases, may I make the point that in my experience the more the manager thrashes out an *individual* case, the greater pains the supervisors take to see that *they* thrash out their departmental problems more thoroughly in the first place, so you see the manager still has time to do other things —like reading this book.

Most of us have a streak of vindictiveness. The streak that prompts us to suspend a man for the maximum period allowed by law when, on reflection, we would have realized that there were elements of doubt; that possibly we *didn't* give prior warning that "next time you are liable to suspension." It's better to make sure at the first decision than to modify it with the second.

I recently had a request, through his management representative, to see a superintendent. The latter had suspended a man for persistently damaging a tool. The man, with his shop steward, protested, and the management representative held a meeting with the supervisor,

the man, and the steward present. After hearing all the evidence, the manager cancelled the man's suspension on the grounds of doubt. The superintendent claimed that this had lowered his and his junior supervisors' prestige, and would lead to more breakages.

After listening to the evidence I came to the following conclusions:

- (a) The suspension by the superintendent was unjustified in view of certain doubts thrown on shop procedure and instructions.
- (b) The manager was wrong in lowering the status of the supervision by withdrawing the suspension publicly, with man, stewards, and supervisors all present. He could have said to them that "he and the superintendent would talk the matter over" and then tell the latter alone that he was not on sound ground and should, in the best interests, withdraw the suspension and tighten up the shop procedure.

I was convinced that the superintendent was suffering from a loss of prestige rather than a doubt on the manager's decision, and I persuaded the manager that he had done his superintendent an injustice. An apology was made, which was received as generously as it was given, and the matter was settled with everybody a little more knowledgeable and, I believe, convinced that fair play had prevailed.

(e) *Good health.* I have sometimes heard stories about certain of the world's great men doing their best work under the stress of starvation and ill-health. I can only say: "How much *better* work would they have done under more favourable conditions."

It is natural that man cannot give his best to anything when extraneous worries beset him, and bad conditions such as a cold room, or bad health such as a sharp cold, *must* reduce his working efficiency.

I believe managers should encourage the maintenance of a good standard of health and should start with themselves. The provision of reasonable medical services in the industrial set-up, the occasional physical audit, the creation of a positive outlook towards health, which

should permeate throughout the company, are all desirabilities, and can be achieved if the managers have that interest at heart.

My own company, because of its policy, was the first to collaborate in a large-scale experiment in miniature X-ray photography for the detection of T.B. Ninety per cent of all personnel willingly collaborated. The company has given every facility for the Industrial Health Research Board to carry out experimental work, and so on. These activities were possible through a positive attitude towards health which will, following the managerial example, permeate throughout the whole company, to the advantage of all.

(*f*) *Reasonable humour.* I don't know how better to define a sense of humour than to call it "a mental pressure relief valve," and there are probably as many occasions of high pressure where relief is obtained by turning on the *humorous valve* as by any other means. You must have seen those occasions where, in a meeting, the whole atmosphere of strain is suddenly relieved by a quip or joke and everybody breathes out and relaxes. As G. K. Chesterton says: "Solemnity flows out of men naturally; but laughter is a leap—It is easy to be heavy; hard to be light."[1]

The secretary of our social club once asked if we would mind a sketch being presented at a works concert, having as its theme a skit on a management progress meeting. Not only was it agreed, but one management member wrote it! Our only complaint was that the performance wasn't as funny as the actual meetings sometimes become!

There are times when a serious beginning to a meeting is desirable. There are more times when a good smile is better to put them all at their ease. I have found that early meetings with shop stewards were serious to the point of stodginess. After a short acquaintanceship a thawing-out process develops and the *business* aspect does not suffer; in fact, it improves.

A good technique is to arrange a short break, or tea interlude, just after a rather serious bout of business. It

[1] *Orthodoxy*, by G. K. Chesterton.

allows relaxation to take place. Yes, a sense of humour, applied at the right time, is a valuable means of relaxation from high pressure. As such its value as a managerial safety valve is unquestioned, and it is an essential quality.

(g) *Friendliness.* I don't mean necessarily having personal friends in the business. I don't believe in creating too many outside social contacts with colleagues inside, as it is easy to create difficulties. After all, we see plenty of each other inside, and there are still many others with whom we can have social intercourse. What I mean by "friendliness" is a "stand-easy" outlook towards people, and the seizing of opportunities reasonably to mix with people whenever the opportunity presents.

Do you attend a reasonable number of social or sports activities? Do you ever, when walking around with a supervisor, join in the conversation with specific members of rank and file, or stand aloof while he does the talking, and expect him to pass it all on? Do we isolate ourselves into too many sectional dining-rooms for meals? I have seen the various grades of managers and supervisors split up this way so effectively that you might have thought the architect was the same person who laid out a powder-filling factory, where "isolation" is the rule.

Do you make a conscious attempt to remember the names of various people; to inquire about their hobbies, wives, kids, misfortunes? This is *not* condescension; it is (or should be) based on genuine friendly interest. It is the lubricating oil of business—the manager, the business, the community, are all better off for some of it.

(h) *Cheerfulness.* This is not necessarily the same as a sense of humour. I would define it as "keeping a sense of proportion."

Someone said to me once "you haven't seemed very cheerful lately, and it's gone through the factory." As it happened, I had been brooding over certain problems, but I wasn't aware this was apparent to my colleagues. Too fretful an attitude at some hold-up; too easy to be critical and less easy to praise; exaggerating the importance of something; writing a note to someone where normally

personal contact is made; continually bringing up a past error—all are manifestations of a lack of cheerfulness. The sustained humorist—the habitual back-slapper—are just as irritating as the dismal Jimmy. A sense of proportion is most valuable to the manager. You will have no difficulty in finding the other extremes often enough to provide plenty of variety!

(*i*) *Tolerance.* Tolerance is defined in engineering language as "the amount of difference between the lower and upper limits." It is really just the same in human measurements. Every action must have upper and lower limits of correctness and therefore tolerance must be exercised in measuring or judging the action.

Suppose someone doesn't do a thing to your liking, notwithstanding specific instructions. Do you always exercise tolerance, just as even the most *skilled* practical craftsman requests when he produces a part. In your technical capacity you have said on scores of occasions that the tolerance is not wide enough "because those so-and-so draughtsmen have tied the job up too much!"

Some tasks are important and the "tolerance" must be tight. Some are easier and the "tolerance" can be easer accordingly; the manager who endeavours to judge every task, or variation from it, on one standard tolerance just as wrong as the inspector who uses the same standard in judging "finished" and "rough" surfaces on a metal part.

This analogy may have repercussions. The cashier may say that to be 1d. out in a total is as big a crime as being £10 out. There is only one right, and that is right. Perhaps so, but taken in its broader sphere the man who loses the company a 1d. is still not deserving of as much stricture as the £10 loser. "Let the punishment fit the crime."

The Essential Work Order left managers the opportunity of suspending an employee for up to three days for misconduct. I know of many cases where, whenever anything went wrong, the full three days' suspension was applied automatically. In such cases could you wonder at the

ensuing trouble? Quite obviously the same "amount" of tolerance was shown, irrespective of the basic measurement of the offence; a crime in practical spheres, but all too often committed when applied to *persons*.

I think it is most important to insist that proper warning is given to those who are working too near or over the "limits" allowed. We ought to install "personal quality control." In quality control practice you know that proper records are kept and warnings given in time to correct wrong trends. There is *some* satisfaction at least in saying "you have been warned." The same opportunity should formally be given to individuals on "personal" grounds.

Most of us have had experience, usually blamed on to Government inspectors, of having what we think is a new standard arbitrarily applied to a batch of work without prior warning. We think it is unfair and ask for a certain amount of "tolerance-time" in which to put the job right. Let us see we exercise the same tolerance in all our human relations.

(*j*) *A keen interest in personnel problems.* In previous chapters I have emphasized the importance of the *individual*. In the next chapter I shall deal with "organization" and shall attempt to prove by analytical breakdown that organization is based on man, and not on inanimate things that are the creations of man.

Now there is no wide acceptance of this view (as yet). Many supervisors, managers, directors and similar industrial leaders still say "that everything was all right before the war—why all this talk about joint consultation and the frustrations and aspirations of the workers?" You can't force those who think this way, they will respond only to patient example, based usually on practical improvements arising from a greater recognition of individual personalities. It is perhaps just as well we have such critics as it does prevent us from becoming too sentimental and attempting to explain away every piece of peculiar behaviour in scientific jargon, when a good "shake-up" would have achieved the same results more promptly.

Nevertheless, there is a big difference between the manager who recognizes the basic requirements of each human in formulating his industrial plans and one who assumes, as many have done in the past, that the masses will fall into any technological line-up provided.

In recent years many managers have assumed that if they set up a "welfare" section or extend their existing "labour" departments they had discharged their obliga- tions to the principle of joint co-operation. Actually it is hardly even the beginning.

A good personnel manager, given promising materia. among his top executives, could build *upwards* and *down-wards* a really sound personnel approach and appreciation. He has to bear in mind that all his efforts of months could be destroyed in a day by a management not wholly appreciative of the true significance of the human being in our industrial and social community. The personnel outlook is really an attitude of mind which *must* be present on a broad executive front and not only within a personnel department; just as the shop foremen must have a vital interest in the technical layout of their departments, although a central layout department is necessary to co- ordinate and advise on general layout policy and problems.[1]

I hope the time will never come when the managers cease to manage, i.e. to make decisions and to accept responsibility for decisions. There is, however, a big difference between the manager who believes only in the "infallibility of management" and he who, recognizing the basic requirements of man, organizes his unit so that he is a *leader*, a mouthpiece of informed willing people.

I don't want you to assume that in my view "all men are equal in all things." It's "what they are equal to" that counts. Do you believe that *every* man has a potential value greater than his present contribution to the com- munity? If so, then in my view you have the right approach to personnel matters because it will have become apparent to you that, *given opportunities through wise leadership*, the

[1] For an elaboration of this thought, see *Personnel Management in Relation to Factory Organization*, by L. Urwick.

mass effect of a marginal improvement in *all* men will far and away transcend any improvement sponsored by the managerial group alone.



MANAGERIAL LIFTING BALLOONS.
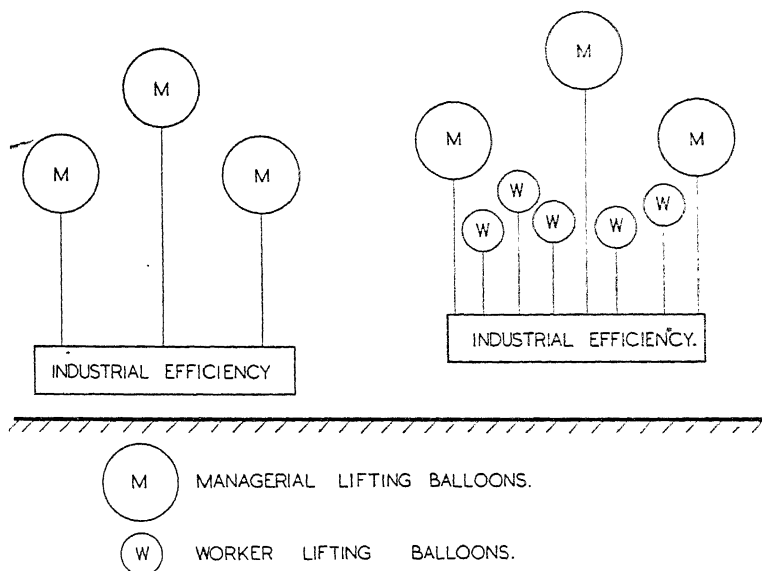
WORKER LIFTING BALLOONS.

Fig. 1. The additional lifting power achieved through worker collaboration.

(*k*) *Recognition of potential value in others*. I have almost covered this quality in the preceding section. The attitude of a manager to other people's suggestions is a good indication of this quality (or lack of it). Do you listen courteously, carefully, to other people's suggestions, however elementary they seem? If you don't, you have failed to realize that, however silly to you, the idea is important to its author, and the man who has the initiative to put forward the poor suggestion may, with suitable guidance, put forward a good one next time.

In a good suggestion scheme it is doubtful if more than one in four is accepted, but it is still very much worth while explaining the weaknesses of the three in order to get the fourth.

Do you give credit to juniors before seniors? Many executives are scared to do this, not realizing that worth-while managers judge a junior's value by his ability to pick

35

and train good men. I have found that good subordinates put me on my mettle. If they covet my job, well, good luck to them. I, for my part, would say with Kipling: "they copied all they could follow, but they couldn't copy my mind. And I left them sweating and stealing, a year and a half behind."

One other angle of this problem should be considered. Many men are desirous of promotion, often feel it is overdue. Do they always consider whether they have a subordinate who can step into their own job effectively and someone to step into the subordinate's job, etc. If not, then obviously they are not ready for promotion, and, even more serious, the company is suffering from lack of an effective training scheme.

(*l*) *Calmness in emergency.* The better the organization the less the number of emergencies likely to arise. We cannot, however, avoid them altogether. The simple misunderstanding may develop into sudden serious trouble; the careless word may cause a flare-up; the hidden flaw may cause wholesale rejections; the power supply may fail, and so on. What do YOU do in such cases? You can rush around like an agitated hen when a cat comes near the chicks. You can stand back and give good experience to your juniors.

I think the golden rule is to let the functional head whose immediate job it is to do something, have full scope to do it. If he has been trained properly he will pass over regular bulletins to his superior, who, in the light of circumstances, must decide whether special steps are to be taken, either on the particular trouble, or in a wider sphere. It's a good plan to rehearse a few typical emergencies and make known the procedure to be adopted, and then, in emergency, adopt it.

While writing this section I have had experience of a minor emergency where a certain small group of key men, dissatisfied with progress of a negotiation, decided to stop working overtime. It was perhaps the duty of the manager to step in right away. It was the *right* thing for the manager to keep away from it until the correct procedure, which

was laid down, had been followed, which meant that the functional supervisors and personnel manager had dealt fully with it. A short-circuiting of this by the manager would have reduced the supervisory responsibility to a low level and weakened the procedure.

Should the progress of settlement appear slow, then he must force the pace, and he would naturally get a complete report of the whole trouble afterwards so that the appropriate lessons are learned.

It was said by someone that if a Prime Minister had more than a fraction of the things to deal with personally that were referred to him he would have a brainstorm. So with the manager. At regular intervals it is necessary to dig into what I call "significant details," i.e. to find out what the boys are doing at various levels. Normally, however, they must work out their own problems and act as a continuous series of filters so that only the relatively big problems come to the top. Unless this reasonable detachment is practised, the managers are likely to find normal procedure and responsibilities breaking down, not only in the emergency but during normal periods and with the top executives overwhelmed by detail troubles they themselves have created. When you write all the reports and make all the decisions, don't be surprised to find you have no reserves available when the emergencies arise.

(m) *Co-operativeness*. In the next chapter I refer to *"co-operative man"* as an alternative to *"universal man"* which was a popular slogan with internationalists some years ago when national pride was not popular.

My reason for this substitution is that, in my view, the term "universal man" implies an individual not unlike Kipling's Tomlinson who, with no particular attachment to heaven, earth or hell, floated eternally between one and the other. A member of the community, to be really effective to himself and his community, must have a basic loyalty and attachment to something specific, like home, department, factory or country. We have learned, however, that this alone is not enough and therefore man, from his

home base, must stretch out co-operative arms towards his neighbours, whether they be local, national, international, social, or industrial.

During the next few years the strain on our co-operative qualities will be considerable and the isolationist should, in my view, be "certified" as unfit for human co-operation. During the war a most gratifying co-operative spirit, developed among the managers of various companies, even among competitors. Few trade secrets were allowed to stand in the way of war requirements. Co-operation on the grand scale between the Ministers of the United States, Britain and Russia took place with treaties setting forth the necessity for post-war continuity. The "common brotherhood" co-operated through the medium of a thousand acts of mutual help. All very encouraging but much harder of accomplishment after the war when, probably starting at the top and working downward right to the small unit, we can so easily slip back into our respective shells. Let's hope not. Let's remember that World War No. 2 had its roots in the secession of country by country from the League of Nations which, whatever its failings, was at least founded on *co-operation.*

Perhaps you think I am drawing too long a bow. I don't think so, and I say without hesitation that the manager who does not work for co-operation in the social community, national and international, who does not encourage co-operation between his own people and others in the industrial community, is unlikely to find co-operation and smooth working in his own factory.

(*n*) *Courage.* Courage in the industrial sense I refer to here is not usually spectacular and headline-making. It is rather that sense of responsibility which forces the manager personally to carry out a decision which, being distasteful, could be more easily shelved. The courage to say quite definitely "No," instead of temporizing or delaying by saying "I might." The courage to avoid letting friendship or length of service play too big a part in deciding promotion policies; the courage to stand on your own feet instead of putting the responsibility on someone higher up;

the courage to disagree with the expert or the "higher up" if you are convinced on your own point of view; the courage to proclaim your views publicly. All rather simple examples, aren't they? Yet it is surprising how many supervisors fall down on one or all. Have you met the supervisor or manager who says that "personally, *he* would give the wage increase but the directors have turned it down." Or the supervisor who, when among a group of others, grumbles about his conditions, pay, manager, or what-not, but who wouldn't think of squarely putting these grouses to his superior without support from others. There are many supervisors who just cannot balance on their own two feet—they must have another support, whether it be a colleague, a group of other supervisors, or a trade union.

The trade union is a power of strength to the rank and file, who, individually, may not and so often do not exercise any individuality. Their strength is in combination with others of similar outlook and it is right that they should be so represented. When, however, a man is appointed, by some outstanding characteristics, to be a manager, however junior, he must encourage himself and be encouraged to stand squarely on his own two feet. To one unaccustomed to responsibility and authority it comes hard, but the measure of success is the measure of ultimate success as a higher manager. In this success courage plays no small part.

(*o*) *Clear-cut speech.* I have often wondered whether the world's outstanding men would remain at the top if we all lost the power of speech. Whether indeed the "top level" would be as high, anyhow.

In the meantime speech, as I have said earlier, is a prolific and popular means of communication and deserves, as such, some special consideration by the manager and the would-be manager, although he should remember that 80 per cent of our perceptions come through the eyes, and only about 14 per cent through the ears. This is a good argument for reading this book!

I remember asking questions about a well-known

manager years ago, when I was in a junior job and wanted to reach higher. "Oh, he got on mainly because he could make a good speech and frequently did, at one place and another." You *can* be a good manager and a bad speaker, just as even many political leaders have been poor orators, but I am quite convinced that just as the good big 'un is better than the good little 'un, so is the fluent manager better than the other sort.

What is the best way to take those knots out of the tongue? I think the answer is—experience in front of others. There are many opportunities, inside and outside, and not one should be lost. I hope, however, we will never forget that although sheer eloquence alone is occasionally satisfying in a meringue-like way, the true worth of speech should be in saying something worth-while, without being (keeping to our food analogy) stodgy.

When you come to think about it, it is rather surprising that people should listen to us when their natural instinct is to talk themselves. The only way we can repay this courtesy is to prepare our words carefully, stand up, speak up, and shut up.

The uninitiated would be surprised to know how many *spontaneous* speeches have been carefully prepared, reduced to a few headlines note, and then, because they *have* been prepared and are available, are more likely not required at all by the speaker. This at least is my experience, and I would never think of insulting an audience by making any more than a casual remark without careful preparation.

Supervisory courses can provide good experience in expressing oneself, particularly where each member *has* to say something and is likely to be called on to sum up the proceedings. Membership of a technical or professional society is also of great value if the would-be manager makes himself take an active part in its work.

(*p*) *Leadership*. This word has often been used in recent years. What does it really mean? In brief, I suppose, one who leads—who is in advance of others.

I would like to give my own definition. Here it is: "*A leader is one who generates, within himself, the necessity for*

*a decision; the action necessary to implement that decision; and in others the willing acceptance of that decision."*

Now here are three special qualities:

(*a*) Generating *within* oneself the necessity for making a decision.

(*b*) *Doing something about it.*
   (These two combined are often called "initiative.")

(*c*) An ability to influence others to accept and carry out the decision. This may be called by varying names, such as "inspirational quality," "personal magnetism" or indeed just plain "leadership."

I believe that true leadership is a combination of these three qualities, and one or two examples might illustrate this. Taking qualities (*a*) and (*b*) one can easily imagine the most rabid "isolationist" or "individualist" possessing a high degree of initiative, applied, however, purely towards his own personal ends. He might not have, nor wish to have, an influence on others such as we envisage in (*c*).

Then again, we might easily envisage a man who, with little initiative, would inspire men to action by sheer dogged personal example. "Their's not to reason why— their's but to do or die."

These two simple examples will, I hope, be enough to prove that leadership is really a combination of two qualities which we will call initiative and inspirational quality.

Now, you will have noted that I have not yet qualified this true leadership. It might be for good or bad. These two qualities may be possessed by saint or devil and it is therefore necessary for the true manager (or manager to be) to have some of the *other* qualities I have discussed previously in this chapter.

This is not always appreciated by those who talk rather loosely about "leadership" being complete in itself as an alternative to "managership." The true manager must manage in accordance with social progress. The "leader" *can* work against it and still be a leader.

*Initiative.* How few possess this quality in reasonable measure? How many can you ask to "look into something" and *know* that it will be done without further reminder on your part? Most people, using football vernacular, are good at mid-field play but just can't seem to score a goal. In other words, they go all round the problem but won't finalize it.

This is an easy "quality" to check in a would-be manager, and one of the most important.

*Inspirational quality.* This is much more intangible. It is possessed in large measure by those who are trusted by the majority and may therefore be largely a summation of the various qualities I have discussed earlier. It is not, I think, necessarily a quality of dash and high-power drive. It is rather a quality which induces in others the feeling that they would not be let down by following the leader's decision, even if by chance the decision was wrong, because they realize from experience that he is more likely to be right than wrong.

I believe most subordinates have long memories, and respect in a sort of concealed way the superior who consistently does a good job. The most rabid shop steward in the firm is quite likely to support externally his firm, his manager, if it or the manager are attacked outside, and he is likely to be as proud as any others if the company, or someone in it, is honoured.

Perhaps it may simplify an abstruse problem too much if I venture to say that the successful leader is he who, within the scope of his responsibilities, consistently does a good job.

CONCLUSION:

I have discussed all too briefly, from a layman's point, of view and in layman's language, what is really a psychological problem of personalities. I have not attempted here to give quantitative values to each of the qualities discussed. I prefer a reasonable score on each rather than one or two outstanding values, with little or nothing on others; in this way one is likely to achieve a more

"balanced" personality rather than the genius who, as a "psychological jack-pot" is as rare as his monetary name-sake and, being rare, is less acceptable as a "leader among equals" than one who is just like you and me—only more so.

# THE ORGANIZATIONAL QUALITIES OF THE MANAGER

*Shew them the way wherein they must walk, and the work they must do.*
EXODUS xviii, 20.

PRODUCING something, whether a satisfied customer to the shopkeeper, or an aeroplane to the industrialist, is the common aim of all, and most of us *see* that this is our aim. The idea of organizing for production is, however, not so clearly seen, chiefly because the significance of the verb "to organize" is not appreciated; the principles of organization have neither been isolated nor, equally important, popularized. The *mechanics of production* are often spectacular; *the personal characteristics of people*—temper, laziness, initiative, carelessness, etc.—are usually fairly obvious. *Organization, the link between the two*, whereby production is achieved by people, is not so obvious, and I am sorry to say that the available literature has hardly encouraged its study by the masses. Don't assume that top managers alone need to understand the principles and apply the practice of good organizational thought. Wherever two or more people are gathered together there is a nucleus for its application.

Let us start with a few definitions. "*To organize*" means "*To arrange the parts so that the whole shall act as one body.*"
"*THE ORGANIZATION*" *OF A BUSINESS is an arrangement of the people in it so that they shall act as one body.*[1]
"*THE ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE*" *defines the boundaries within which the organizers act.*

THE ORGANIZATION:

My definition can be broken into three significant divisions:

 (*a*) The action.
 (*b*) The parts.
 (*c*) The whole body.

[1] Karl Mannheim defines *Organization* as "The Application of Technical conceptions to the forms of human co-operation."

44

*Principle:*

> Organization is based on "action" and must, therefore, be dynamic in conception.

Let me explain. There are many who think that once having created an organization, they *and it* may rest on their laurels. This is a static outlook—the antithesis of organization. Such people will one day awake to find that national and local trends or internal changes have left the organization ill-fitted to deal with current and future policies. The remedy is obvious: they should see that the organization is brought under continuous review in the light of changing demands, performances, personalities and policies.

## THE ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

The organization structure must allow for this dynamic conception of organization, just as a suit of clothes must be enlarged to accommodate the expanding limbs of a growing boy. Let me give you a practical example: In my own Company the considerable energy and enthusiasms of the "parts"—i.e. the individual personalities—had, during the last few years either to be restrained within the limits of the original structure of the Company, thus leading to frustration, and possibly a breaking away from the "whole"; or, alternatively, the structure had to be expanded to allow for the full growth of those who felt they could do a bigger job.

The strictly practical effect of expanding the organization structure has been that *one* factory has been expanded to 15, with a volume of production many times greater than before.

*Principle:*

> The organization structure must be capable of flexibility to allow full scope for the personalities comprising the organization.

## WHAT ARE "THE PARTS"?

We have seen that organization is based on *action.*

Now action, within the scope of man's requirements, must be based on man himself. It is man who must organize the actions of man. You cannot organize a company or department—you organize the people, or perhaps, more accurately, the personalities within it. We can therefore state, as a

*Principle:*

> Organization is centred on and around man himself—on living personalities, and not on and around inanimate things which may be the creation of man.

I hope I have convinced you that in carrying out the first, intermediate and the last processes of organizing, you must start with the personalities available or required, and not with the machines, departments or buildings available. The latter can perform no useful function except through the former.

At this stage I once again draw attention to the basic fact that a particular "organization" is correct only if the "personalities" within it are unchanged. Let me give you two examples from the war just to illustrate this point. The war-making organizations in the U.S. and Great Britain were built around the personalities of Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Churchill. Who would deny that any change in these two individuals would definitely require a change of organization also.

The organization chart or lay-out is accurate only if expressed in terms of personalities. Any change in these personalities should mean a re-examination of the lay-out of organization.

THE MOTIVATION OF MAN

Man is motivated by many things, and we too often assumed that these things fell into two watertight and separate compartments or spheres:

> (*a*) his working sphere
>
> and  (*b*) his social sphere.

No connection with the firm across the street! How wrong we were. We are now realizing that there are few Jekylls and Hydes, and that, as our social and working

impulses are almost indivisible, in order to understand more fully our working requirements and possibilities we must study our "social" requirements.

I hope this realization will affect the outlook of managers more and more in the future.

This "common outlook" factor is, in my view, true of almost every type of person, occupation and location of community. The days are gone when lack of communication and personal contacts created and maintained self-contained centres, either firms or communities, differing widely in conduct, social conditions, and aspirations from the general standard. Comparisons with outside conditions are definitely our business. It was unwise to assume that the Nazi state was "Germany's business" alone as many did in 1938–9. It is unwise to ignore the firm up the road which has put in a freak bonus system, making higher earnings possible. It is unwise to assume that the miners will continue to live in black valleys with low social standards and low wages when the fruits of industry are much sweeter for Mr. and Mrs. Worker nearby.

*Principle:*

> The working (or industrial) requirements and possibilities of man are rightly bound up with his social requirements and possibilities. One cannot be understood without reference to the other.

THE "SOCIAL SERVICE STATUS" OF THE FIRM

Just as industrial man is linked to his social sphere, so is the industrial unit in which he works. Every firm has a "social service status" although it may not realize it, and every manager should examine the "standard" of his own firm in this direction. The higher that status, the better the persons attracted to it and remaining in it, because generally men give their best in such an environment. For instance, in war one firm may, from the start, cast aside all other thoughts but the one of war-winning. Every man in such a firm expands accordingly. In peacetime the men working in a firm where the production is

47

of useful or aesthetic value do more by comparison with another firm, which may have even better wages but with lower "social service status." Man likes working in a good business just like living in a good neighbourhood.

Here, indeed, is one practical step you can take to establish and maintain a higher level of performance throughout the whole organization, which is at least of equal importance to "the arrangement of the parts" within it.

*Principle:*

> The higher the "social service status" of the firm, the higher the performance of those working in it, and attracted to it.



NORMAL STATUS LEVEL
OF INDUSTRIAL COMMUNITY

*Status Level FIRM A*

*Status Level FIRM B*

*Status Level FIRM C*

*Status Level FIRM D*

WHERE IS YOUR FIRM ?
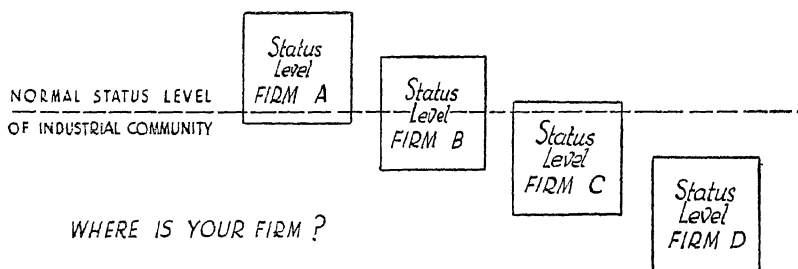
Fig. 1 [1]

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF MAN

It is necessary, in getting the best from man, to have an understanding of the characteristics that are dominant in man. I am not a psychologist, and cannot talk scientifically, but my experience has shown me that there are certain broad characteristic categories into which men fall, and the blending of men with varying characteristics is the essence of success.

Some have attempted to divide men into two main types:

*Dynamic*—those whose main characteristic in ACTION.

*Static*—those whose main characteristic is THINKING.

I do not think we should use the term "static." There · is a minimum of action required of every person making ·

[1] The eight diagrams in this chapter are reproduced from *Management ; in Action,* by courtesy of the Institute of Industrial Administration.

up the organization; there is a certain degree of leadership required in every person, whatever the function he controls. I wish to suggest a rather more definite way of gauging man's possibilities, and in doing so will use the three principle qualities isolated in Chapter 2.

These were:

    (a) Personal, which we might subdivide into:
        (i)  Good leadership.
        (ii)  Co-operative.
    (b) Organizational.
    (c) Technical.

*In each of these a certain minimum is required*

In every manager we obviously want *some* leadership quality; we want an irreducible minimum. We also want a certain minimum of co-operation, a certain minimum of organizational ability, and, in my view, a definite minimum of technical ability in some specific aspect of the business.

Now from this you can draw a "quality curve" of the man you want for a particular job, and then attempt to find one whose own curve tends to match. Now we can find our so-called dynamic and static types and match them to the jobs they are likely to control best. Let us take two men—a works manager and a chief accountant. The former deals more often with trade union organized personnel, with those who are generally more extreme politically and less interested functionally, than the personnel usually found in an accounts department. It is obvious that more of the works manager's time will be spent in leading personnel than the chief accountant, who is, therefore, better able to concentrate on the technical aspects of accounting. The "quality curve" should show these relative requirements.

*Principle:*

    Define principal qualities required among members comprising the organization. Set minimum requirements for each quality and attempt to match individual "quality curves" to basic requirements.

4           **49**

TWO TYPICAL 'CHARACTERISTIC CURVES'
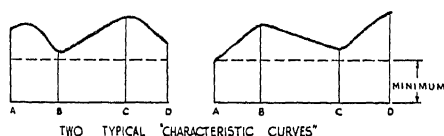
Fig. 2

Now it is doubtful whether a business of "all the talents" would work long. The personalities making up a normal business often remind me of an engine. We have the solid bedplate without which the whole rotating structure would tend to shift and vibrate. We have the bearings, helping to constrain, support, and lubricate the rotating crank. Then the many varieties of rotating and reciprocating members; the safety valve; the high and low pressure sections; the slow movers; the fast movers; each contributing its share to the ultimate output.

In business we also find (and, I hope, will continue to find) a combination of the many personalities and types making up our national engine. The business in which every personality is made identical is like having an engine in which the bedplate suddenly decided to act as a crankshaft or piston!

For goodness' sake don't assume we mustn't look for talent. We must have a certain minimum and must encourage the best, but don't confuse brilliance with talent, or assume that we want a whole company of go-getters. If we get them, look out for squalls.

In every community we find a variety of people who fall into a variety of categories. The business should be a *reasonable* reflection of the community, and any business attempting to gather together an internal population differing widely from communal averages is likely to get trouble. This may come in many ways. Let me give two examples.

I know one factory where almost artificially high attempts were made to encourage supervisors. The supervisors were appointed and highly trained but the company did not expand quickly enough to satisfy the growing "status" to which the supervisors raised themselves.

The solution was (*a*) to expand the company's structure or (*b*) tell some supervisors to find greater prospects elsewhere. Just a case where something was pushed too far out of balance.

The other example comes from my company, where the job of armature winding is a very important technique. At one period the labour position became so acute that future production was in jeopardy, very largely owing to the fact that the supply of skilled armature winders dried up.

Now if a process requires such an amount of skill outside the "community average" the company should do one of two things:

(*a*) Reduce production to a stage where skilled labour demands can be continuously satisfied.

(*b*) De-skill the job.

Here was a case where an artificial demand was created for more personnel of a certain type than the community had to offer. Applying my previous dictum, the *approach* to such a stage would automatically mean a concentration by the production engineers on (*b*) above, thus enabling the greater supply of *normal* labour to be used.

I hope no one will have the impression from recent remarks that I or you should be entirely satisfied with "just the ordinary crowd." What I have tried to convey is that each company in its constituent parts should be a reasonable reflection of the community in which it lives. We *can* work on "margins" by attempting to maintain a standard just in front of normal; remember my recent statement that improving the social status of a company is one way of making a group of "average men" into "average *plus*."

There is another most important aspect of this problem, particularly applicable after a war. During the war we have been forced to use people who in more normal times would have been classified as "unemployable." With no others available we adapted our outlook and techinque so that these people could be used to their benefit and our own sense of social pride. Arising from the war, many

will become "blind and halt." Let us see that these members of the community do not rely on "pittance pensions" and charity. *They are part of the community* and we must accept responsibility for using them usefully.

*Principle:*

> The personalities comprising the company should approximate in proportion to the personalities comprising the community, and "personnel utilization techniques" should be based on this assumption.

FITTING IN THE PERSONALITIES

We may require a certain minimum score in the "quality values" of the various members of the organization, but this still doesn't necessarily mean that they will combine and work together without some effort, just as the pieces of a jig-saw require effort to form a complete pattern.
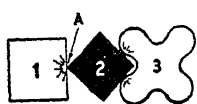


Fig. 3

Every person has what I call a "personality contour" and the little diagram here illustrates my point.

You can imagine what will continue to happen at contact point A!

It is, of course, at the fringes that friction takes place in the main, and pressure points like A must be eased in some manner, always remembering that contacts can take place at any facet on *each* personality contour, and easement of friction points must therefore be accomplished on *each* pair of contacts.

In other words, getting on with one neighbour doesn't mean that you speak to the other, and in our industrial neighbourhood you must speak to both!

I knew someone who, while first-class at controlling his own function, has a "personality contour" like the cross-section of a hedgehog. He wouldn't willingly attend any meeting in the offices of equals, but sent a subordinate, who was so restricted by lack of knowledge kept by his chief that the latter soon realized he was letting his own department down by not delegating or attending. The

result was that he delegated more and also often attended meetings. His weak spot was departmental pride, and was, at least partially, the means by which his contour was modified, although the contact points still wanted careful watching by equals and superiors.

*Principle:*

> To every *action* exerted by the individual there is a reaction by the person contacted. The "personality contour" of each individual in the organization should be fitted in as accurately as possible to that of his surrounding contact, so that points of "high pressure" reaction are reduced.

## THE SENIOR EXECUTIVES

I am going to say little on the broad division of responsibility common within the average industrial unit. Usually, of course, one is fairly safe in assuming that there are at least four main activities:

(*a*) Research and Design.
(*b*) Production.
(*c*) Financial Accounting.
(*d*) Sales.

I shall not dwell on the detailed activities of the managers controlling these primary functions. I wish to emphasize just a few special aspects of higher management on the organizational side.

## THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS

It was perhaps easy to draw an organization chart when the only direct representative of the board on site was the managing director, to whom all the other managers reported. There seems to be a tendency, good in many ways, for more and more directors to have offices at the main factory, and to have specific continuous functional duties therein, as distinct from merely advisory ones at board meetings. This brings with it certain problems, and it is essential to bring them into the limelight, for the sake of the directors and the managers who report to one or more of them.

One test of these relationships is the ease with which an organization chart of the higher management can be drawn. Easy to say, as some directors do, that charts don't matter. They are at least symbolic of what should be known by all and failure to produce one, or difficulty in drawing one, is a fair indication that relationships can be improved. "Relations" will always be with us—let us see that they are clarified.

An added difficulty is the tendency of directors and senior executives to appoint "assistants," who have, in my view, a difficult and almost unfair job to do.

Don't confuse "assistant to the manager" with "assistant manager." The latter title and job is legitimate. The most charming manner may be of no avail if the status and authority are not high, and most people object to dealing with the "assistant to Mr. So-and-so" if their own status is greater than that of the assistant. I am not suggesting that directors are the only people who appoint senior office boys. It is fairly common, and while I could point to some specific advantages, I believe there are more disadvantages. Let us endeavour to list some:

*Advantages:*

(*a*) Enables specific problems not yet released to subordinates to be investigated within confines of principal's office by someone with greater opportunity and knowledge than the latter's secretarial staff.

(*b*) Enables principal to increase his span of control (the number of people reporting direct to him) because his personal time is relieved by assistant, who can prepare, analyse and sift reports, etc., prior to consideration by principal.

(*c*) Enables principal to devote more time to broad problems of company policy, because of load of detail taken over by assistant.

*Disadvantages:*

1. Most problems, actual or potential, come within the

direct scope of one or other of the functional heads reporting to the principal or his colleagues. Why, therefore, not use them *directly* in investigation work. They are bound to be consulted by the "assistant" at some time in the investigation and would appreciate being "in the know" direct with the principal from the very beginning.

2. The assistant must be of status equivalent to the highest subordinate consulted if he is to be really successful, otherwise his contacts with superiors are often resented and things are held back for *direct* discussion with the principal, thereby wasting time instead of gaining it.

3. Having an assistant sort out the detail is not the best way to get rid of it. If a report, etc., *does* come to the principal's desk, it should be concise, anyhow, and should contain a meaty summary which it is essential for *him* to know. If it needs sorting out he should educate the subordinate, not take on a sieve.

4. The assistant may be regarded as a species of Gestapo, which is not good for the organization.

*Conclusion:*

On balance, I think the growth of "assistants" is a wrong one, and may be an indication that the business is getting too big.

#### EXECUTIVE CONTACTS

I believe there is one most satisfactory way in which the rather loose contacts and lines of authority at the top can be prevented from degenerating below the high level of top performance required. This is by continuous personal contacts.

Tension and strain exist only when "bodies" are kept apart and it is most desirable that *all* functional top executives, whether they be directors or managers, should meet informally on a formal basis every week at least. It should be understood that each is at liberty to raise any point, whether it be covered within his own specific function or not, on the basis that at such occasions

everything in the business is everybody's business. Let me give a simple example. The works manager might be considering a production campaign in one or more departments. Although specifically his own responsibility he would mention this possibility to the other executives at this meeting. They would be able to give opinions which would no doubt help: he would get them more willing assistance (and he would probably want it) and generally, a better approach to the whole activity would be achieved than proceeding on his own and probably, as so often is the case, forgetting to tell the others until later, if at all because "he didn't see them at the time."

Such "team" responsibilities for general company well-being and for passing along items of general interest to each other are difficult to show on an organization chart or in terms of reference, but they are an invaluable aid to co-ordination and co-operation, and set a standard which can more easily permeate through the organization.

It is possible that the top executives of a business meet less frequently as a complete team than almost any other group. This is wrong, for the managing director *and* the other executives. If this "common ground" became more cultivated there would, I think, be less need to appoint assistants or for the vague views expressed by come theorists "that the top functional executives are too busy on detailed administration to help in policy or overall management of the business." It may sound impressive to say "that you must be freed from all *operating* responsibilities *in order to think.*" The results of combined thinking by a small group of functional executives are, I think, even more impressive.

*Principle:*

> All senior functional executives should meet at least weekly for exchange of information and discussion on all major issues. The basis of such meetings is that, superimposed on the specific functional control responsibilities exercised by each member, all consider that everything in the business is everybody's business.

# ORGANIZATIONAL QUALITIES

## THE IMPORTANCE OF THE "PART" IN THE "WHOLE"

One of the most common phrases used by managers is "team-work." "The whole is greater than the part."

It is obvious that in our team we should have a wide range of "personalities" and it is unwise to assume that a man will easily sink his "personal judgment" when the latter may tend to clash with a "company" or "team" decision. "A man convinced against his will is of the same opinion still."

There are some who seem to think of man as "universal man" and they are the ones who, when someone raises an objection, imply that that someone is being disloyal to the team by his attitude. More often than not he is doing what he is paid to do—exercising his own personal judgment.

Man must, however, have, in all parts of the organization, a minimum score on "co-operation," and instead of the term "universal man" I would prefer "co-operative man," which implies that man serves the department, the company, through the strength of his own personality, and the real strength of the company is a judicious blending of all personalities, not a levelling of them.

Do not let us therefore fall into the error of condemning a man because his thoughts may seem strange. If you are satisfied with him as a whole you must pay attention to him in detail and his attempts to climb out of the rut of normality may pay good dividends providing the encouragement is there. I thank God that I have had superiors who have recognized that I may still be doing the best even if I have not done it quite the way they would have done it.

*Principle:*

If you are satisfied with a man in broad outline, allow him, within his functional responsibilities, to exercise his "personal judgment" to the full. The "whole" must be achieved through the "parts"—not vice versa.

## THE IMPORTANCE OF THE RIGHT BEGINNING

"If at first you don't succeed," etc., is a dangerous and costly motto in industrial and war-like circles. Its adoption too often follows from the attitude of mind mentioned previously where there is little appreciation of a man's "personal judgment" and therefore little utilization of that individual judgment as a contribution to the departmental or company problem.

Too often "the infallible manager," with his vague talk of the team, loyalty to the company, etc., relies too much on the general spirit of goodwill that is supposed to flow continuously downwards.

Well, such one-way traffic is not a solution, and as Newton made it impossible to have an upward flow of such a liquid, we must find something more solid than goodwill to solve our problems. In my view, implied company goodwill goes out of the window very quickly when a specific wrong comes in at the door, and so it is more positive to rely on an organizational procedure which allows the individual points of view to be taken into account before final decision. The more you study these at an early stage the less you try, try again when the first "decision" has failed.

Many a scheme has taken longer to settle down because of lack of early preparation, and one of the things I have definitely learned from the war is that *early* consultation on policy-making (and changing) really does enable the scheme to get off to a sound start. Let me give two examples:

In one case an impatience to get on with the job resulted in a slight change to an agreed joint committee constitution being put in by the manager, on the basis that further agreement could be obtained from the members at the inaugural meeting. No such thing happened. It was no use pumping goodwill into the meeting; the fact was that here was a change that had not been discussed, however unimportant it seemed to the manager. In the long run it was settled, but by far more wasted time all round that if the whole committee procedure had been put back pending complete satisfaction on the basic agreement.

The other case is one where a new department was being considered for special concentration on "small quantity" orders. It was easy for the manager to issue terms of reference, a new organization chart, and the name of the person to run the department. Actually, *all* senior supervisors likely to have a functional connection with the proposed set-up were consulted collectively, and arising from their many points of view a co-ordinated scheme was prepared which brought along with it a number of other valuable suggestions. A few hours only in discussion, led by the manager, and we got a joint responsibility for ensuring that the new departmental head and his department achieve success. To some this may sound too much like the Civil Service! Combine the willing acceptance of consultation, the right leader co-ordinating all views, and the speedy decision of commercially-inclined people, and you have the ingredients of success at the *first* time of asking.

*Principle:*

> *Co-ordination at the early stages (Mary Follett) is best, or thoroughly mixing the dough is better than turning up the gas.*

THE LINES OF CONTACT

Euclid said that "the shortest distance between two points is a straight line" but Einstein cast certain doubts on this, and the action of many people I know completely destroy its validity. They go from A to B via C (and sometimes D) and generally, of course, C and D are higher up the ladder.

It is done for one of four reasons:

1. That C and/or D insist because C and/or D wish to know *everything*.
2. That A wishes to impress C or D.
3. That A has no confidence in himself.
4. That A has no confidence in B.


Fig. 4

All pretty bad reasons, with (2) the most natural.

I have often been struck by the considerable attention

59
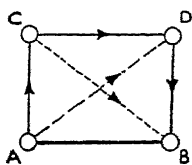
technicians give to factory flow lines. They look over the drawing board for hours and put all sorts of arrows from here to there, moving about little pieces of cardboard to ensure that everything is nicely in technological relationship to the others. The operation sequence is designed to ensure no wasted movements or time.

Unfortunately, there aren't as many people who can appreciate and lay out the "organizational flow" where, as with materials and parts, there can be just as much movement and distortion, damage and delay, caused by bad lay-out, but applied to people instead of materials.

The most spectacular example I know, to illustrate the advantages of this point, is one that has already been mentioned by others before me. It relates to the shipping control between France and Britain in the last war. The original set-up seems to have been as follows:

The commodity experts in wool, grain, coal, etc., in each country (A and G) wanted to obtain mutual contact and agreement on supplies and shipments. There was therefore a bond of common two-way interest between A in Britain and G in France.

It wasn't quite so simple to get it (at first). Fig. 5 shows the original arrangement.
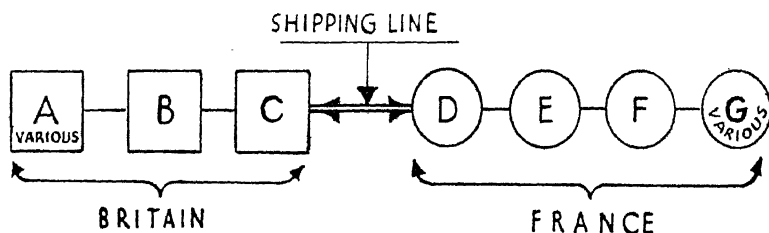


Fig. 5

Taking the original set-up, A must go first of all to B (Board of Trade) which was the Government Technical Ministry concerned; then through the Foreign Office (C); across the Channel to the British Embassy (D) because the diplomats wanted to know all about it. Then through the French Foreign Office (E), and the Ministry of Commerce (F) for the same reason, ultimately arriving (we hope) at G.

Now, what was the nature of the "common interest" bond? In this case it was the availability of *shipping*. By degrees therefore the lines of contact were shortened until *direct* contacts were established between the commodity experts in each country—coal to coal, wool to wool, etc. The lay-out drawing now looks like this:
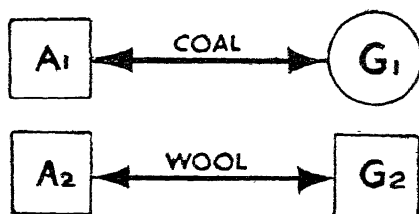


ETC
Fig. 6

The solution was to allocate so much shipping *in bulk* to France from Britain, which avoided immediately the necessity for detailed shipping arrangements between any but those directly concerned with the particular commodities using shipping space.

You will already have noted:

(*a*) The shorter flow lines of personal contacts.

(*b*) The *direct* contacts of people with *common* interests.

(*c*) The increase in flexibility made possible.

(*d*) The obvious improvement in efficiency.

Let me give just one more example:

We have endeavoured to get direct contacts between specific members of "servicing" departments like production engineering, time study, and progress, and the supervisors of the direct production departments. It was easy for the chief production engineer to say that before he could give service he required a request from the chief supervisor of the shop department concerned. Expressed diagrammatically you might get this:
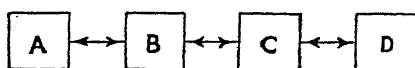


Fig. 7

(A) is a foreman of a section of which the superintendent is (B).

(C) is the chief production engineer and (D) is his assistant.

A has to go to B; B to C, and C to D, and vice versa.

This was "bad lay-out" and we have encouraged, with I believe some success, to set up in our "service" and "advisory" departments, subordinates with specific responsibilities for "servicing" various production departments. In the production engineering department you find a section leader who normally concentrates on the machine shop, another on one assembly department, someone else on certain branch factory activities, and direct contact between the foreman of any of these sections and the appropriate section leader is encouraged.

Similar methods apply in the time study and progress departments. The personnel department also has its direct representative actually available in each main department, so that we now get something like this:
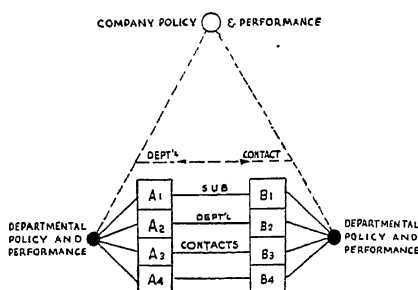


Fig. 8

Here are a number of subordinates in each department with "common interest" bonds well formed and at frequent intervals integrating experiences into a dynamic common policy through meeting together with their own superintendent. What do we gain?

(a) Shorter flow lines of personal contacts.

(b) The *direct* contact of people with more highly developed *common* interests.

(c) Greater opportunity for subordinates to build up their own personalities.

(d) Relief from detail by superiors and greater opportunity for judging capabilities of subordinates.

(*e*) Opportunity for each superior to arrange at suitable intervals discussions between self and his own subordinates to integrate and develop departmental and company policy and performance.

There are certain limitations to this general idea, but I have no time to say more than ask you to consider the principle very seriously.

Just one or two other thoughts around this question. Never hesitate to bring a subordinate, or even delegate one to a meeting with your equals or your superiors (with their knowledge)! If he shines you will get some of the reflected glory—if he doesn't you will deserve what you get!

*Principle:*

Shorten lines of personal contacts by encouraging subordinate responsibility. Utilize this integrated experience continuously to develop departmental and company policy and performance.

## THE ALLOCATION OF RESPONSIBILITIES

Any re-allocation of responsibilities in the organization should be considered very carefully. Here are a few of the important considerations:

(*a*) What specific difficulties have arisen that call for reconsideration of the organization lay-out?

(*b*) If there are no apparent difficulties are you really satisfied there is good reason for change, as "change for the sake of it" is not desirable.

(*c*) Who are the departmental heads that will benefit most by the proposed change?

(*d*) Is it logical and desirable to allocate the additional responsibilities to anyone in (*c*), starting with the one who is likely to benefit most by the change. Does it also mean the appointment of an additional person to assist the departmental head chosen?

(*e*) If (*d*) is in the negative is it logical and desirable to allocate them to any other existing person or is it better to appoint a new person altogether, thus forming another department?

(*f*) Would the "lines of contact" between either an existing, or a new person, and other members of the organization, across, up and down, be reasonably short?

Let me give three examples from practice.

The first relates to my company years ago. The stores foreman controlled the rough and finished part stores alone. The receiving and dispatch departments, together with the store-room of finished assemblies, were under the control of the head traffic clerk, who sat in the general office on another floor, where he had an office staff keeping records of rail traffic, dispatch notes, etc. Arising out of disciplinary difficulties between the hourly-paid personnel under the two heads it became apparent that it was not quite ideal for one branch of *shop* personnel to report to an *office* man who, in turn, reported to the office manager, while adjacent, engaged on almost similar work, were similar personnel reporting to a foreman under the works manager.

A change was made where the stores foreman was promoted to superintendent and took over the receiving and dispatch and finished stock personnel. The office man was kept to the "office" aspects only.

The results have been very successful.

Here we could answer the questions above something like this:

(*a*) Disciplinary difficulties.

(*b*) ——

(*c*) Stores foreman—works manager.

(*d*) Yes. The stores foreman already controls similar shop personnel and is therefore probably in a better position to control larger numbers of them than the traffic clerk, who, being "of" and "in" the "office" has therefore the more difficult task of controlling two types of people, one of which is not even in the same geographical area.

(*e*) Not necessary to appoint a new person as existing stores foreman is suitable type for promotion.

(*f*) Yes. In the new "composite" department greater flexibility of personnel would be possible, as being in the same area, any rush of work in one or other of the

sub-departments would be overcome by temporarily drafting men from others to it. As all sub-departments come under one department head this is easy to arrange (in practice this was very successful). The balanced working of receiving, storing and dispatching would be improved. The "office" liaison would be just as easy as before.

The next example is a recent one where, with the complications of many varying contracts, it became more and more necessary to have greater accuracy of control over the "working load" function in various factories and departments.

The problem therefore was to:

1. Show up regularly the "contract load" on the company and give warning in time to avoid breaks in continuity.
2. Show up regularly the "work load" in individual factories and departments, and give warning in time to avoid overloads which could be overcome by putting work out, making or ordering new machines, fixtures, etc.
3. Give guidance on possible delivery dates for new contracts received, together with bottlenecks to watch.

It must not be assumed that these functions were previously ignored; (1) was covered at intervals by the works manager and "load" figures in sterling were given by the accounts department every few weeks; (2) and (3) were part of the general responsibilities of the planning superintendent.

There was too much at stake, however, to have any doubts about this problem, particularly having regard to the growth of a number of factories relying on the central planning department: it was therefore decided to give specialist attention to the job of "work loading."

Answering our questions again we have:

(a) Expansion of company with its attendant responsibilities, tending to crowd out continuous investigations into "loading."
(b) Yes.
(c) All managers, from top to bottom, including supervisors of most departments, where continuity of production is a real help and if ignored can be a very worrying problem.

(d) Previously three specific persons were responsible for one or more aspects of this problem : works manager, chief accountant and planning superintendent. Of the three the latter seems the most logical because:

1. Workloading is really a planning function, irrespective of whether the "work" is a main contract or a load on the auto department.

2. Planning department has most control figures already available and is generally responsible for issuing schedule of production.

3. Accounts department is generally concerned with "post-actions," and the normal function of its members is exercised *after* and not before production; hardly a right outlook on a function which must *precede* production.

4. As the planning superintendent reports direct to the works manager it would be just as easy to get the load position from the former as for the manager to do the job himself. A survey of the existing assistants in the planning department indicates that no one could really take on this specific job with quite the degree of confidence required, and so it is desirable to appoint a new man reporting direct to planning superintendent with terms of reference covering what is wanted.

(e) ——

(f) In the planning department "contact" lines will be improved as a tidying up of work load responsibilities takes place. The works manager and, indeed, all top management receive direct intimation from the "work load" section of planning and will take whatever action is necessary to obtain contracts, etc., from the schedule supplied. The "sterling" return from accounts is not so necessary and its issue can be less frequent.

My third example is of a training supervisor who visited us from a very well-known firm to see our training school. During lunch I found out that she was not very happy because "no one in the works seemed to be very interested in taking trainees; the experimental department was the only one that seemed to utilize them." I asked, "to whom do you report?" and she replied "to the chief engineer."

66

I told her not to worry so much about the techniques of the training department, but to have a frank talk with her chief on organization principles.

Here is the way I would have answered the questions on this case:

(a) Little interest in training department activities by works management and supervision.

(b) ——

(c) Those who could utilize trained labour most, i.e. the *production* departments.

(d) On the basis of (c) obviously the works manager would be more suitable a person to control training than the chief engineer. He *could* take over existing training personnel as a beginning which would probably be enough to persuade his subordinates to use it more fully.

(e) Alternatively, further consideration might be given to making "training" part of the personnel function, so that selection, engagement, training and allocation to departments are all part of one man's responsibilities. If the personnel manager reports to the works manager then (d) applies. If not, then consideration might still be given to the possibility of a greater "acceptance" of training by production supervisors, if it was taken over by personnel, even though the latter function was not under *direct* control of works management.

(f) The lines of contact would obviously be shortened by both (d) and (e), with (e) probably best. The chief engineer should be able to fill the gap by concentration on his main job, which really is rather apart from "training."

## THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN "DIRECT", "SERVICE" AND "ADVISORY" PERSONNEL

In every industrial unit we have the so-called "direct" supervisors controlling machine shop, assembly, etc., i.e. all personnel engaged on fabricating the products of the company. There are the "service" supervisors, controlling such functions as maintenance, tool making, inspection and canteen. Then there are the "advisory" supervisors, controlling functions like accounts, personnel, medical,

production control. The borderline between "service" and "advisory" is hazy, and many people refer to all non-direct functions as "service," which is probably better.

Now we all know the historical trend from the days when the "shop" supervisor was almost king in his own shop, to the period not long ago where he was in danger of having his throne remade into a long form, on which sat all sorts of service supervisors, each of whom had a voice in running the shop department. I refer here to those who control personnel engagement, training, welfare and release, progressing, time study and rate-fixing, lay-out and tooling, etc. The actual shop supervisor was in danger of being pushed off the form altogether! Recently a slight swing back has been noticed and the "direct supervisor" is rightly coming into his own again. My purpose is to stress certain aspects of these relative responsibilities; here are a few specific difficulties:

1. The personnel supervisor or his representative gives advice to a worker which may be used by the latter to influence his own supervisor, whose views may not coincide with the personnel department.

2. The time study department modifies a bonus rate which, when modified, is put in, unknown to, or unacceptable to, the shop supervisor.

3. The "progress" representative asks a setter direct to change over a machine to a more urgent job, even by breaking down a running job.

4. The lay-out department makes a change of departmental lay-out which is put into effect without consulting the supervisor of the department concerned.

What is the dominating note running through all these examples? Surely,

(a) The possibility of a different point of view being held and expressed to the personnel than that held by the supervisor in charge of them, which might result in a weakening of the latter's position.

(b) The possibility of the shop supervisor not knowing what is going on in his own department.

Dealing with (a) we shall never completely solve this

68

possibility. While we have a language producing a sentence such as "this is a fine company," where emphasis on either the first or the second word gives an extremely different meaning, we shall always have difficulties in isolated verbal discussions.

I believe the remedy for these difficulties comes mainly under the heading "co-operation."

Let us see how this outlook would affect the various examples quoted:

1. Does the personnel representative *regularly* attend shop supervisory meetings, even if they do often deal with purely technical problems? If not, how can one expect an integrated outlook? Having such an outlook means that little division of opinion can take place very long.

2. Is the bonus "rate change" *mutually* agreed by the time study and shop people? The former *may* say "what right has the shop to question my study and rate? The shop people *can* say that acceptance by them means that each has a reponsibility for "having a go at it," which is better than a one-sided responsibility.

3. Has the supervisor an understanding with his setters that no job shall be *broken down* except with his consent? Does he give opportunity for the shop and progress representatives mutually to discuss the shortage list or "shop load" at frequent intervals?, If not, he is at fault in not exercising his own responsibilities.

4. Has the shop supervisor an understanding with the lay-out department that no change will be put in hand without his "approval signature" on the lay-out drawing? If not, he is failing to exercise his own responsibilities.

You will see from these comments that generally the onus rests on the shop supervisor to exercise his own responsibilities. If he is content, as is often the case, for service people to take them over, he cannot grumble. The managers should encourage the direct supervisor to accept full responsibility for his own departmental results, but should see that full organizational opportunity is given for service assistance at all the levels. The organization necessary can be set up through joint discussions, joint

signatures, etc., with, however, *the clear understanding that a man must be individually responsible for his own departmental results.* It is never so satisfactory to give communal praise, or to kick a corporate backside. One should endeavour to bring both down to the individual.

Following this reasoning through we have, in our own organization, given the dispersal factories very full managerial responsibility on the spot. The planning superintendent at a dispersal plant is not responsible to the planning superintendent at the main factory, but to his own manager. Similarly with other functions. *There is, however, complete machinery existing for the understanding and acceptance of a common "planning" policy, etc., based on frequent personal contacts.* I believe the building up of local enthusiasm and responsibility for local output has been largely responsible for the fine results.

*Principle:*

> Insist on individual and not divided responsibility for departmental results. At the same time the service or advisory personnel should be given full functional opportunity to assist this individual without removing from him his prime responsibility.

### THE PRINCIPLE OF "COMMON INTEREST"

I have already stressed the basic need for co-operation and consultation. Just in case, however, it is felt that they might be confined to any one section of the industrial personnel, I want to come out strongly for an organization that provides for these necessities throughout every grade, from directors to rank and file.

Earlier I stressed the fact that man's social and industrial requirements were practically identical, irrespective of position. The privileges and opportunities a democratic social community offers are also expected inside industry. The industrial means by which they are likely to be achieved, viz. the organization, should recognize as a basic principle that all in the company, whatever their positions, have a great deal of "common interest" which,

like two men on a rope, provides a more powerful pull providing they pull in unison.

Many managers, unfortunately, take the view that the aims of the "workers" are generally in opposition to, or at the least not in unison with, their own. If analysed, it will be found that there is much common interest, with merely different methods of expression, which, if little opportunity is given for mutual interpretation, remain as misunderstandings and, worse still, show little unison of pull on the rope.

How can organization help? Generally by:

(a) Providing organized opportunity for co-operation and mutual understanding at all levels.

(b) Setting up common standards of performance and reward.

Briefly (a) means that I am definitely in favour of joint consultative committees at all levels, and I hope they will be a permanent feature of our industrial organization. They will be dealt with more fully in later chapters.

Dealing more fully with (b), let me give a few examples:

1. I have seen examples where factory output schedules were based on calendar *monthly* output, while the setters' and others' incentive bonuses were based on *weekly* figures.

2. Stores used material records in "feet," while stores records were kept in lbs. (Very elementary, but true.)

3. Different factors used in assessing the efficiency of different grades of supervision where the only real difference was one of degree and not of factors.

4. A floor lay-out where, with two similar production assembly lines fed from a common pool of machines, the opportunity was lost of getting a concerted, competitive urge by the two assembly foremen or the machine foreman. Where each "line" had an *identical* claim there would be less possibility of friction and more of *competitive assembly* urge, combined with a joint urge for supplies.

5. One set of gauges for the producer, and another, measuring from different datum faces, for the inspector.

6. Setting different standards of performance, nationally and internally, on such questions as absenteeism, lateness

71

and accidents, all of which make comparisons and improvements in efficiency difficult.

7. Failure to pass on items of *general interest* on the basis that nothing "is of any interest to a functional controller except something within his function." This attitude of mind has restricted many a company.

8. "Voting divisions" within a joint committee set up where the voters within a particular division vary too much in type. Mixing skilled men with semi-skilled women may prejudice the "authority" of the divisional representation.

I hope you notice the wide range of examples which indicates the scope of improvement.

Well, I have tried to give you some idea of what I mean by the organizational qualities of the manager. I hope you will agree that in "tooling up management" the organization lay-out is just as important as the floor lay-out is in tooling up the product.

I hope I have created in you an urge to isolate and study the *principles* of organization, because once you have a set of sound principles you have a managerial "tool kit" that is invaluable and will be a guide and inspiration to you in your working and your social life.

Under the stress of war many things have been learned.

"That," as Peter Drucker says,[1] "does not mean that war is desirable or that it is enjoyable; it is neither. But it can be made to yield positive results far exceeding the mere defeat of the aggressors. Indeed, it must be made to bear such results unless we are to experience again that frustration, that disillusionment, that moral collapse which after the last war led to the poignant cry that the sacrifices had been wasted. This moral post-war depression would be a real threat to our freedom—not the war itself, nor an economic depression after it. *And the only way to prevent it is to use the war-time organization of society, the war-time integration of individual and group, the war-time unity of purpose and belief, to develop social institutions of our industrial reality which will hold out a reasonable promise of leading to functioning and free institutions in peace-time.*"

(The italics are my own.)

[1] *The Future of Industrial Man.*

# THE TECHNICAL QUALITIES OF THE MANAGER

*Less than one student in eight graduating from British Universities were technologists . . . Britain depends on its industries and its commerce. These must in future become efficient to a degree they have never achieved in the past. That efficiency can be based only on an effective, systematic and comprehensive system of technical training.*

From "Britain needs a National Policy of Technical Education."

W HAT do I mean by "technical"? My dictionary tells me it is "pertaining to science or the mechanic arts."

Now this description includes both *Science* and *Art*, which is significant, as many of us generally assume that "technical" covers only the "theoretical" aspect, which is usually called "science" and practised by the scientist, rather than the "practical," which is more often classified with the arts, and practised by the artisan or craftsman.

*I am therefore definitely including a combination of "practical" and "theoretical" in my use of the term "technical."*

My recent analysis disclosed that an ideal manager should have a score of 13 per cent. in technical qualities. Now, this percentage may seem very low to many managers and I want to explain rather more fully how I think this should be interpreted. Most of us get our basic practical and/or theoretical training before we are twenty-one. At that age we have usually finished with full-time schooling (apart from the school of life). If we started our working life in the practical world of factory or industry, we are, by the time we reach twenty-one, near the end of our apprenticeship, or basic training. If we attend part-time classes at the same time, these also would be near their end, at least in the organized sense of recognized courses. Therefore our basic "technical" training (practical and theoretical combined) is likely to be confined mainly to this, the second decade of our life. In later decades, we will say the next four (up to sixty years of age), we are applying our "technical" knowledge, obtaining a greater

73

knowledge and appreciation of "organizational" principles, and using our "personal" qualities to apply this knowledge in the broader sphere of greater responsibilities.

Oliver Wendell Holmes once said that "Science is a first-rate piece of furniture for a man's upper chamber, if he has common sense on the ground floor." I am going to reverse this conception in the purely geometric sense by asking you to consider the pyramid below:

THE PEAK OF MANAGERIAL ACHIEVEMENT.



PERSONAL QUALITIES.

ORGANISATIONAL QUALITIES.

TECHNICAL QUALITIES.

62%

100%

25%

13%
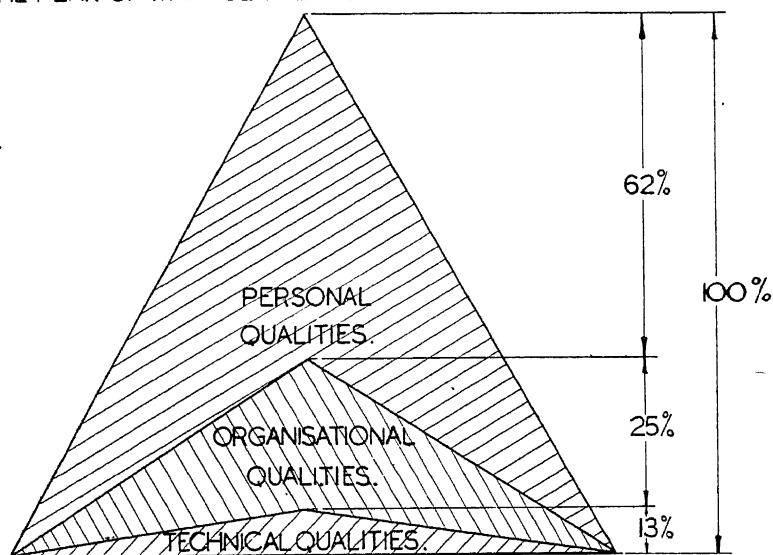
Fig. 1. The build up of managerial qualities.

Here is how I see the complete managerial build-up. First, a stable wide-base pyramid of technical (practical and theorerical) experience and knowledge, which most young fellows entering industry obtain in a more or less organized manner. Few reach the peak of technical achievement, and many who do stop there, remaining as skilled craftsmen, or junior technologists such as planners, draughtsmen, chemists, etc. The relatively few at this stage have just begun to show definite evidence of other managerial qualities. These are the potential "managers" and should be encouraged to develop an interest in and

knowledge of the principles and practice of good organization, superimposed on the "technical" base. Thus in the third decade (20–30 years of age) our budding manager should be acquiring a good knowledge of the essential principles of organization.

The pyramid shows graphically how the personal qualities extend their influence right down to the base, enveloping both technical and organizational qualities. This dominant quality of "personality" occupies, however, more and more "area" and will continue to find more mature expression, supplementing both his technical and organizational training, until in the later decades his ultimate reputation will rest more and more on sheer "personality" which has been mellowed and conditioned by the two basic layers of experience.

"Yes," you are saying, "but this doesn't prove that the 'technical' layer is necessary. Aren't there many managers who have become successful with two quality layers?"

I will agree with you. I know a number of successful managers in various grades who have not had basic "technical" training in my combined sense, or even in any sense. I do say, however, that good though these men are, they would probably be better still if they had had this earlier training; just as "the good big 'un is usually better than the good little 'un."

What are the advantages of this technical training? Let us examine the more outstanding aspects.

TECHNICAL (PRACTICAL)

"It's dirty work, but clean money." This well-known phrase originated, I believe, in the mining industry. Unfortunately a great majority of people, particularly parents and school-teachers do not, by their actions, subscribe to the "clean money" theory. The majority of school-teachers (and possibly it's the fault of industrialists) do not influence their brighter boys towards the "practical" side of industry, but rather to its so-called "white collar" openings, if to industry at all. Very few boys (only 3 per cent of all boys entering industry) can get accommodation

in technical schools, which provide industry with its most promising boys, as there isn't much room in them, and from my experience during the last few years I should say that only a small number of the most promising boys from primary or secondary schools enter (directly) our factories to start a practical course. The entrants are more likely to be from the lower levels of ability.

This bias against "practical" work is likely to be communicated from teachers and parents to these more promising students, who are led away from a sphere where, if more encouragement had been shown, they would have been presented with opportunities probably greater than the "non-factory" jobs they sought.

The result of this bias on the part of teachers, parents, and many young people is that the word "factory" becomes synonymous with "common" people and even "industry" becomes a little suspect.

I have seen much of this during the last few years where people have been "directed" into factories much against their desires. Fortunately the majority found that the "old inhabitants" weren't quite so bad as was anticipated. Certainly many newcomers have found opportunities they would never have found elsewhere, opportunities for good companionship, good meals, reasonable wages, working conditions, and opportunity for promotion.

What do I mean by "practical" experience, and what are its possible benefits? I must, of course, confine my remarks to the industrial sphere, which in itself is very wide. Now, industry covers the production of many things, ranging from coal to food. The managers of the coal mines and the food factories have common requirements to meet in order to be good managers. As managers their "personal" and "organizational" qualities have already been discussed, and are required in similar measure whatever the type of product manufactured. It is certainly a fact that the coal-mining and food factory manager will both benefit by a common selection and training policy in these two requirements.

When we approach the other partner—"technical" then

we are likely to find a more specialized sphere. For instance, the practice of coal-mining is very different from food-mixing. The "theory," leaving out fundamental mathematics and science, is likely to be fairly specialized. The mining man must be biased towards geology and the "food "man possibly towards chemistry. At this moment, however, we are dealing with the strictly "practical" side of each man's technical training, and *the whole gist of my argument is that the mine manager will be a better manager by practical experience as a miner and the food factory manager as a worker in that type of factory.*

*What are the advantages?*

(*a*) The "after" satisfaction of having been "through the mill." I believe few would deny the personal satisfaction derived by looking back on a period of practical work, being one of the many and sharing fully the hours, the grime, the hazards, yes, at times with a certain degree of wistfulness, the relative lack of responsibilities. I hope that the young men now being directed to the mines will, by their intimate association with the miners, derive a satisfaction which, whatever their future activities, should benefit the associates and the nation.

(*b*) The real satisfaction of knowing "the feel of the machines." Never does this become more apparent than when, during a discussion on a problem, you can, out of such practical experience, contribute something of value. To the manager who has handled the tools and the machines, far less explanation need generally be given. His thinking is conducted in the right atmosphere and his judgment is more likely to be right.

(*c*) The respect given by those, whether technicians or laymen, to one who has had experience of what he is talking about. This respect is all too difficult to win in these days when Government regulations have stripped off much of the "power" previously possessed by managers, and left many pretty naked. The manager who can talk to his men on their level, having worked at their level, will receive, *other managerial qualities being present,* a greater

respect because of that common bond of experience. To get to the "inside" of a man you must either get to his level or he to yours. If you are manager and man there is usually only one way this can be done; you must get to him, and it is a great advantage to know a good approach.

(d) The advantages during the theoretical part of your training of being able to apply that theoretical knowledge to your own practical experience. Much theory is rejected by young people because they cannot see its practical application. Lucky the teacher who, knowing the students' practical work in mine or at machine, can constantly apply theory to practice. Lucky the student who possesses such a teacher (and opportunity).

(e) The possible advantage of a continued interest in practical things. Failure to use the hands, muscles, and tools during early working life often means failure to appreciate how satisfying continued expression of practical arts can be. We are moving away from individual expression of craftsmanship in the home to mass relaxation. The "kitchen bench" is giving way to the radio set. The growth of mechanization in factory *and* office means that relatively fewer people are using hands and muscles in a "craft" sense but are more accurately described as machine-minders. Now I want my potential manager to have had experience of machine minding because he should have the satisfaction (or lack of it) of experiencing all aspects of factory work. I want him *also* to go through those departments where the hands are still vital instruments in the production functions and where the feeling and satisfaction of craftsmanship will prevail, although differing in character and perhaps more scientific in application than the craftsmanship of previous decades.

This interest in doing practical work is, in my view, vital to our future satisfactions. During war it is perhaps natural that many cases of mental instability are apparent. Even before the war, however, an increase was noted, and I believe that it may become a major problem in the post-war years if some "corrective" is not applied to our mode of living and working. I believe that corrective could

well be a greater development of individual expression through the medium of handicraft or practical work.

How many of my readers, having little opportunity during the last few years to do anything except manage, get a real thrill from doing a simple job around the house such as painting, putting up some rustic-work, keeping hens. The principal difficulty is persuading oneself (or being persuaded!) to do something which means using the hands and tools instead of just talking, reading, writing or listening.

Those who have had experience of "rehabilitation" work during the last few years will testify to the important place practical work plays in getting the right mental attitude among patients recovering from various physical and mental maladies. If these courses of diversional therapy would only continue and expand more into our normal lives I am sure we should hear less of the neuroses which are becoming such a prominent part of our absentee records.

You may say that I am attempting to prove that the man who works or has worked with his hands is not likely to suffer from mental difficulties. This is not true. What I am trying to say is that those who are mal-adjusted, whether they be machine-minders or managers, are likely to find a greater satisfaction through using their hands as an additional outlet for self-expression. As a prominent biologist and educationist said recently: "There is no realization of the fact that the skilled movements of the fingers and hands of the craftsman are no less an expression of brain activity than the production of an erudite treatise on mathematics."[1]

I would like my would-be manager to have had this experience and satisfaction as I believe that, having had it, he is more likely to appreciate its value to others, not only in early training but later on as a supplement—even a complement—to working lives.

During the period of writing this chapter I have had my attention drawn to an article in *The Times* Educational

[1] See also page 204.

Supplement entitled "The gap between theory and practice."[1] The day has passed, rightly, says the writer, when we can afford to send out "from the universities into industry young men and women, their heads buzzing with mathematical, physical and chemical theory, but with no appreciation of the real restrictions imposed by practice." The "gap between theory and practice" has now to be permanently bridged; a closer link has to be forged than existed in pre-war days between theoretical training on the one hand and industrial experience on the other.

It will indeed open a new era in education when there is a more general appreciation than now that to be "technically educated" means possessing an *essential minimum* of practical experience in the particular section of industry concerned.

TECHNICAL (THEORY)

Now for the other half of our managerial "technical" requirements.

By theoretical I mean not just the study of mathematics, although a study of maths. for maths.' sake may assist logical thinking, which is so desirable in us all, as in maths. there is always the happy risk of seeing the point as well as getting the right answer! I mean rather that study of the theoretical foundation on which so much of our practical work is now built up. The realization that, back of most of our practices, is (or should be) a theoretically-proved law or principle, which should always be searched for and borne in mind when giving practical expression to your work. The "technically balanced" individual will not slavishly follow theory but will depart from it if necessary, not in ignorance but with full realization of his deliberate action.

Some strictly "practical" people tend to sneer at theory; perhaps the relatively low salaries paid to many possessing even "honours" degrees give the impression that they are ten a penny. The moral of the latter situation is I think, that possession of a degree in science is no guarantee

[1] February 6th, 1943.

whatever that that individual can do more than work out theoretical problems with the greatest of ease. Greater value lies in the application. I think that in theoretical training more emphasis should be given to the *importance and application of principles*, so that in all practical problems the mind instinctively goes to the "law of the situation" and uses this as a starting-point. It is fairly certain you will be more often right this way than by considering the "practical" aspects only.

Now if you have been trained as, say, an engineer, you are pretty certain to have become reasonably acquainted with many principles, such as Newton's Laws of Motion, Boyle's Law, the theory of the "instantaneous centre" and so on.

This knowledge *should* have had a profound effect on you. You should have realized that fewer designs happened "by guess and by God" than you previously thought was the case; that considerable time and money can be saved by "calculation before production" as against the "cut and try" method; that knowledge of these things in your own special sphere is likely to make you look for similar principles in other spheres, both industrial and social, should the occasion arise.

Have you ever heard it said that "Man is not subject to any laws—he has to be treated purely as an individual"? I am sure you have, as most of us have said it at one time or another. Some time ago I decided to investigate this view more thoroughly because there seemed to be, if it was true, a tremendous gap between the many laws of science which "signpost" our industrial way and the complete lack of laws which we might apply to the *people* who walk that way. If only a few general "laws" could be found which might be applied to human beings, we would be considerably helped.

To those who scoff and say it can't be done, may I make this point. I don't claim 100 per cent application in some of the "laws" I have applied to *people*. Their application can be likened to the problem of finding out the address of a man who has gone away to the seaside. If your "law"

tells you only that he has gone to, say, Yarmouth, it has saved you inquiring at all the other resorts. The "law" may even bring you as near as the street he is in, after which you must apply "individual" treatment to finding the house. In other words, the "law" has at least helped in the groundwork.

I thought the possibilities of investigating "personnel" problems in a more scientific manner were attractive enough to investigate, while realizing the danger of going too far. My first step was to examine certain physical laws within my knowledge as a technically-trained engineer, and although the surface is only scratched I have found a surprising similarity between certain known laws in the physical world and those I thought might apply in the personnel sense.

Let us take Newton's Laws of Motion, which, since "life is movement" might be capable of translation into another sphere. Here they are in original Newton:

*1st Law*    Every body continues in a state of rest or in uniform motion in a straight line, except if it is compelled by a force to change its state of rest or motion.

*2nd Law*    If a body is acted upon by several forces, it is acted upon by each of these as if the others did not exist. This is true whether the body is at rest or in motion. In other words, if two or more forces act upon a body at the same time, each produces exactly the same effect as if it acted alone; the total effect or resultant motion of all the forces may be found by a diagram in the same way as the resultant of forces is found.

*3rd Law*    To every action there is always an equal reaction, or, in other words, if a force acts to change the state of motion of a body, the body offers a resistance equal and directly opposite to the force.

And now for the new "personnel" application of Newton:

1. Each individual, group or community automatically resists a new condition imposed upon it, even if the intention behind the new condition is good.
   *Moral*: Even good actions are regarded with suspicion.

1(a) Each individual, group or community automatically resists the removal of an existing condition, even if the intention behind the removal is good.

*Moral*: What we have we hold, whether we want it or not.

2. If conditions are imposed, rules made, or instructions given, each condition, rule or instruction produces its own individual effect. Varying conditions, etc., if simultaneously applied, do not cancel each other out, they only cause confusion.

*Moral*: See that there is a unified policy, and presentation of that policy.

3. To every action there is equal reaction.

*Moral*: Before you act, study the possible reaction.

Don't you think these results are worth a further investigation into similar translations? Here are a few more:

*Boyle's Law*: "The temperature of a body varies in proportion to the pressure exerted." This could apply to "us" almost without adaptation!

*Hooke's Law*: "As long as the Elastic Limit is not passed, the strain is directly proportional to the load producing it."

What a good "law" to bear in mind when putting over the value of reasonable breaks and reasonable hours, particularly if it could be demonstrated what usually happens to a piece of metal (and a body) if the elastic limit is passed.

*The Laws of Friction:*

(a) "Friction at starting from rest is greater than friction of motion."

I have noticed this at "personnel" starting times!

(b) "Friction is directly proportional to the pressure between surfaces."

Once again an admirable "law" to use in building up a good organization, in which there is little "friction" at the "contact surfaces" between departmental supervisors.

*"Nature abhors a vacuum."*

A physical fact is that if, for instance, air is taken from a vessel, other air tends to rush in, until stability is

reached again. This fundamental fact can be applied direct to humans. There is no use endeavouring to take something (such as a bad feature) away from a person without endeavouring to put something better in its place. Such a "law" can be of great value to the manager in his organizational and personal dealings with others.

Well, have I convinced you that there is something in my theory? Perhaps the present examples and arguments are not conclusive and someone might be interested enough to follow up this line. My reason for putting it forward is simple. *It is that, in my view, someone who has had training which gives a sound interest in, and a working knowledge of, basic "laws," their application to practical things, and the value of that application, is one who is more likely to apply that logical thinking to his managerial activities later on.*

In my experience a majority of managerial and personnel problems are caused by practices which are divorced from principles, very largely because those in responsibility have not been trained to think in any but a very narrow sphere, if indeed they have been trained at all.

It is in the engineering industry that we find the greatest possibility of obtaining the right technical training, practical and theoretical. Engineering is almost a basic industry in the sense that machines and the laws governing the machines are almost universally applied in industry. I hope therefore I won't be accused of undue bias when I say that, with the right "personal" and organizational possibilities, the young engineer is the best raw material for industrial managership.

Hoover and Fish have stated that "at every stage the work of the engineer must meet two tests. One as to its technical integrity and adequacy; the other as to its economic soundness."

Ivor Sigorsky says in his autobiography: "I feel convinced that if the leaders of modern social, political and philosophical thought would do their job one half as well as the average research engineer, the present world would be a much safer and happier world in which to live.

"It must be admitted, however, that to a certain extent technical progress also contributed indirectly to the failures and disappointments of our time. . . . The extreme complications of modern national and international life and economics is so misleading that masses of men cannot understand how little they know about the realities and facts.

ꜰ "I would never take the initiative in using the uncomplimentary word "masses" with reference to men if it were not already an established modern expression. . . . The general restlessness, strikes, racketeering and revolution are not a compliment to the intelligence of mankind. All this happens in spite of, and not because of, scientific and engineering progress, and if the *"masses" of mankind and many of their present leaders would only acquire a part of the respect for truth and realities which an engineer takes for granted, the general outlook would be very much better.*"

The statement at the end of this quotation is, or should be, true. The trained man is *likely* to search for realities because he knows that there is something basic or factual behind most technical statements. In the political and economic fields there is much which is "opinion" only and the opportunities for misleading the public that much greater. (Perhaps they love it, but I have my doubts.)

How often have I heard long arguments among people (occasionally among those who ought to know better) on subjects where the *facts* were easily obtainable. No one thought of getting them. Don't, by the way, assume that the fact-finder need be a dry old stick. He can still exercise his argumentative characteristics on plenty of subjects where it doesn't matter so much!

Two other opinions, this time from the electrical engineering field, on this matter. An editorial in the *Electrical Review* quotes Mr. W. M. Silvery, who suggests that "an education primarily based on 'the humanities,' often accompanied by a complacent ignorance of technology, is unlikely to produce men capable of governing a world that becomes more and more technical". . . .
"It is not more difficult to distinguish among young

technologists than among classical graduates what men are likely to develop into successful administrators."[1]

Mr. Beard, in his presidential address to the Institute of Electrical Engineers, said that "many have been led to take up engineering through a natural aptitude for logical thought, which, with subsequent training (including a knowledge of all sorts and conditions of men which they gain while serving their time) ought to be of immense value to society." This, as the editorial says "calls for a new sort of training to bridge the gap between and to co-ordinate the work of technicians and of administrators —a training that will enable those who undergo it to make a synthesis of knowledge and also to envisage its tendencies and its ultimate effect."

To sum up, I would say that, while my "13 per cent technical quality" may seem low, it is, I think, an "irreducible minimum" except in very exceptional cases, and only in these exceptional circumstances should I choose a manager who had not, in his particular "technical" field, reached this level of technical quality.

[1] December 6th, 1940.

## MANAGEMENT BY CONFERENCE

*Mr. . . . . . . . is in conference.*
From "The Secretary's Guide to Success."
*The curse of this Age is committee responsibility.*
Letter from a Managing Director.

PROBABLY no phase of management has had so much derision poured on it as that dealing with "conference" or "committee" work.

Speaking from personal experience, I can say quite definitely that relatively more and more of my working life is taken up "in conference." The very name for this type of activity has, in recent years, become more dignified in its transition from "committee" to "conference." The Civil Service, with its alleged wealth of discussion and its relative paucity of decision, has been mainly responsible for the general view that "a committee does not commit anybody" and "a conference just confers." Or again it has been said that "a conference is a group of men who individually do nothing, but as a group can meet and decide that nothing can be done."

Now, the purpose of this chapter is not to say immediately whether these views are good or bad, but to examine all aspects and attempt to pass judgment based on that analysis. I am therefore devoting this chapter to a brief discussion on the "conference" as an activity of the manager because it is essentially an activity of "getting together." Much of this book is taken up with stressing the value of co-operation and because the conference is so integral a part of my theme I think we should, firstly, see why it is necessary and, secondly, how to make the best use of it.

A popular expression used when several people are gathered together for any business purpose is for the impatient ones to state that "the best committee is a committee of one." This not very original statement is usually based on the fact that large groups invariably make bad

decisions, or, more often, no decision at all, and therefore the fewer people the better to get results. The "fewest possible" is presumed to be ONE. Actually the "fewest possible" is NONE, which sometimes would be for the best.

## THE PURPOSE OF A CONFERENCE

What is the purpose of a conference? It seems mainly to be the following:

(a) To receive considered decisions from above for trans-\ mission *downwards*.

(b) To receive considered advice from below for transmission *upwards*.

(c) To discuss and ask for confirmation of its decisions by those above.

(d) To discuss and make decisions which are carried out by the conference itself.

Summarizing we get:

(a) Receive—Discuss —Transmit (downwards).
(b) Receive—Discuss—Transmit (upwards).
(c) Discuss—Advise (upwards).
(d) Discuss—Decide—Carry out decision.

Examples are easy to find, such as:

(a) Some large companies having a "head office" and numerous branches, which receive decisions by letter from head office. "Theirs not to reason why."

(b) A request from the shop stewards of a department to the departmental supervision for a "concession" which involves company policy, and therefore must be passed to higher management for decision.

(c) The majority of works council or joint production committee discussions, where "executive" authority is not often possessed and resolutions are passed to the appropriate executive authority for decision.

(d) A board of directors' meeting, where decisions are made by the "conference" and the necessary executive action started.

Each of the examples in these four categories could be multiplied many times, covering a wide range, although even from those I have taken you will agree that a fairly

wide net has been cast. Most managements will say of example (*a*)—"this is not my firm." Well I know a good many but no names!

Most of you will agree that in our present set-up, national and industrial, you frequently take part in conferences which fall into one or more of these categories. The problem is—are they all necessary to our way of life, or can one or all be eliminated?

Let us take the *individual* interests concerned in each example and see how the individuals concerned in them would answer a question on the best method to use:

"Individual" interest in favour of:

| *Example* | *"Committee of one" plan.* | *"Conference" plan.* |
|---|---|---|
| (*a*) | Head office Manager. | Branch Managers. |
| (*b*) | Departmental Supervisor. | Shop Stewards. |
| (*c*) | Chairman of Committee. | Other members of committee. |
| (*d*) | Chairman of Board (and possibly) Managing Director. | Other Directors. |

The answer is, of course, quite easy. Generally speaking, the desire for a "committee of one" comes from the chairman or leader of the group. Very few leaders fail to express (inwardly or outwardly) impatience at one time or another with the necessity of calling together other people when they feel they could more expeditiously come to individual decisions. The snag is, of course, that so many of us are rarely leaders exclusively, but perforce become often merely members of the group, so that with each of us our desire for ultimate efficiency through action as a "committee of one" is frequently likely to clash with our urge for expression "through the group."

*The definite conclusion is, therefore, that the best committee is not necessarily a "committee of one"* but depends entirely on the circumstances.

*What are these circumstances?*

It has been said before, and I agree with the statement, that "there is twice the basic thinking necessary to write

a statement than to talk one," or, as Kahlil Gilbran put it —"in much of your talking, thinking is half murdered." It would probably be a fine idea to hold a conference where all the participants were gagged and had to write views on a blackboard. I must try it sometime, although such a conference among doctors would be rather a strain!

The facts are that while speech is a normal method of self-expression it will be used, and, for good or evil, will play a predominant part in interchange of ideas and for directing actions. This will be recognized by all, irrespective of party, profession, or sex. Unfortunately the old joke about "knitting giving a woman something to think about while talking" is not confined to knitting and women, but even if true still does not leave us any alternative to the value of the spoken word.

*We are therefore led to the conclusion that the most common form of self-expression is through the power of speech.*

Now, if we accept this we must see that, like other expression, it is controlled and directed into useful channels. To use a concise, if not exactly picturesque, Americanism, we must see that "one spills a bibful!" *On this basis our standard must be the least amount of speech per unit of work produced.*

Now, here, of course, we find high efficiency in our "committee of one." The "one," when called upon to decide something, cannot waste speech in discussion but must indulge in that rare thinking which can be done generally only when one is alone, or at least quiet. This form of thought which, if carried to logical conclusion, is expressed in writing and not verbally, is without a doubt most productive and, *as a basis for discussion* is without parallel.[1]

In my view one of the principal reasons why "committee" or "conference" work has become synonymous with derision lies in the fact that its discussions are not based upon such a considered report, prepared and preferably

[1] The issue of a reasoned White Paper by the National Executive as a basis for subsequent debate in Parliament is an ideal example.

circulated in advance. So much time is wasted in finding a common basis for approach to the agenda that friction has developed, time wasted, wrong ideas crystallized before even the conference gets its teeth into the real meat. One might liken the preparation work to a menu giving alternative dishes. The conference, from this menu, makes a final choice of meal.

So much for the "committee of one." In the "committee" or "conference" sense which implies discussion, it is a misnomer. *In the sense of "preparation before discussion" it is an invaluable aid to conference value.*

*The Value of Discussion.* World War No. 2 was started because certain peoples felt strongly enough that "freedom of expression" was worth fighting to preserve. We were told, with appropriate evidence, that in the Axis countries no one had the right to express his views unless those views were strictly in line with national policy laid down by the great dictator and carried out without question by a descending line of minor dictators. During the progress of the war we all accepted restrictions on our mode of life which interfered with our normal freedom of expression, but nevertheless they were accepted reasonably willingly on two counts:

(*a*) They were temporary.
(*b*) They were "rights" which had to be foregone because of our "responsibilities" willingly undertaken.

Now, what does "freedom of expression" mean? Surely two basic things:

1. Acceptance of our responsibilities towards the community.
2. Within the framework of those responsibilities to express our personality to the community (if we wish).

If we accept this analysis we see that the question propounded by the sub-heading—the value of discussion—is answered by saying that within limits, freedom of expression through discussion, is a basic requirement of democracy as we understand it, and it is not a matter of "shall we have discussion" but "how can discussion be most helpful?"

*How can it?*

We have already established one answer which is:

*By preparation before discussion.* Our recent standard of "speech-value" was "the least amount of speech per unit of work produced." Now speech is (apart from oratory for oratory's sake) necessary only when it is useful. It is useful only when it is contributed by (1) those who know something about the problem; (2) those who don't but can stimulate others who do, or (3) those who do neither but are there to learn or observe.

Those falling into category (2) are often neglected. They are sometimes called "stooges" in U.S.A. but their full value is underrated. Just as the piece of abrasive paper is necessary to light the match, just as both wheel *and* flint are necessary to produce the spark, so there are many people who give of their best only when stimulated, consciously or unconsciously, by others. Here lies the source of one of the greatest tributaries flowing into the broad sweep of our river of discussion—the ability to match the team so that mutual contributory strength is drawn out.

I know a supervisor who, although sound in his own line, contributes his greatest value by expressing thoughts which give glimpses of rare light seen better by others than himself. "And there are those who talk, and without knowledge or forethought reveal a truth which they themselves do not understand."

*I believe that a conference comprising the minimum number of people in categories (1) and (2) above, together with a small number of "learners" in (3) will, subject to discussion around a pre-circulated report, invariably give better results than attempting to make a decision without the discussion.*

A real trouble with most conferences is the unwieldy size. I have been present when scores have gathered to discuss a problem, often with no pre-knowledge, and the only real opportunity is for those "whose oratory leads their thought." This is fine as a relaxation, but they were not there for relaxation.

I have seen similar conferences where several members

of one firm or department are present. This should be unnecessary if the one truly appropriate representative (or two at the most) is well briefed (which can be done so much better when full details of the agenda subjects are available in advance).

I have seen heavy representation by "interested observers" whose sole function seems to be to watch certain indirect interests.

It should be realized that real progress is made in inverse ratio to the number of people present down to the stage where categories (1), (2) and (3)—(page 92)—are just satisfied. On this basis other members of a department or firm can be called in only for as long as necessary for special consultation. It may be desirable, as I have tried, to let a junior grade conference take place more or less informally outside the main discussion, the juniors being available for consultation as required.

The maximum size of a conference is difficult to assess, but for considered thought and decision to be given to a problem I would say that no more than about ten people should be present.

*The organizational features of Conference representation.* A limitation of ten people means that in any large undertaking there cannot be direct representation by all departments. Later on I want to refer to this matter again but right here we can visualize many "interests" which, while having at least a claim to *direct* representation, are excluded on the "size" basis.

The obvious answer is to form sub-groups each being represented on the main body. This is a problem calling for careful managerial action and can be the means of fomenting continuous difficulties. For instance, a "production control department" may embrace sections like production engineering, planning, and time study. These three sections will in many engineering firms be closely related in function and geographic proximity. In such a case they may have separate section heads, each reporting to the production or works manager. If so, each would have a claim to representation on a works

conference, and jealousies would easily arise where one only was invited, if the agenda seemed to concern all. The remedy would be to:

(a) Invite all three—or (where this would make the main conference too large)—

(b) Appoint one individual as senior, and let him represent all

—and—

(c) Brief this senior representative through a sub-conference of the three sections.

Here we have a case where *like* functions have been combined, and we get a composite sub-group which is likely to display a common outlook and objective. We really have here a first step in organizational principles, and the organization of successful conferences is so closely linked with the organization of successful business that the principles involved are largely common.

Individuals rarely attend conferences as individuals. All, except perhaps the chairman and secretary, are there conscious of a pride in representing their department or group. As a representative each must have certain authority to speak, and his objectives should be clear. This is difficult if he does not represent a composite group with reasonably common interests. I have seen cases where groups have been formed from ill-assorted sections with nothing in common except the dissatisfaction that they have had to "muck in" with others. "Staff" interests and "works" interests have been merged, although the conditions of service have varied considerably; "direct" and "indirect" mated together and producing discord because of the lack of common interest, and so on.

Yes, I think we can say that if you carefully plan your groups and sub-groups on a *conference* basis you are on the high road to a good organization, just as the ability to control such a conference is evidence of managerial quality. (See Chapter 2.)

*The length and time of the conference.* This is much more important than generally imagined. I have been present as chairman, or group member, where the length of

agenda or proceedings has resulted in constructive thought giving place gradually to a feeling of soreness, both mental and physical. I have seen chairmen who fail to recognize that reasonable physical comfort, such as comfortable seats or a quiet room, must be present before mental processes can function over reasonable periods. I have seen conferences where one turns up at the appointed minute, and half an hour is taken up in preliminary discussion and possibly coffee, thereby in my view, setting rather a lax tone for the conference. I have seen others start late just because a few don't realize the value of time. Trade Union officials are often serious offenders in this respect, presumably because they give themselves too little time between one meeting and the next. My practice, at all internal meetings at which I am chairman, is to get the rule "2d. per minute" for late comers adopted. It is peculiar, but true, that this has a marked effect on quite well-paid people!

The practice of adjourning a conference, either for a definite meal, or overnight, is of debatable value. I recollect one recently where after the tea interval only half the visiting members remained. Perhaps the first half was responsible, in which case the remedy is obvious.

I recollect another recent conference where, after a whole day in conference, with intervals for refreshment, a meal, and visiting a small works locally, we resumed next morning, and within one hour had crystallized our views into a plan of action that didn't seem within sight the previous evening. I think the evidence is more in favour of a definite break, away from the conference room, and on this basis I would recommend periods of discussion no longer than two and a half hours at one time.

*Day or night?* During the war the office-cum-bedroom was popular; in fact, too popular. Many hung on at the job without a reasonable break while at the same time telling factory workers they must keep to more reasonable hours for optimum efficiency. I know one individual who employed three secretaries, one on each shift, as he came in at all hours and started work. He visited his factory

but rarely and said he could run it by "putting in a couple of hours per week." A mutual acquaintance said, "the factory looked like it!" I understand Lord Beaverbrook, no doubt newspaper trained, was fond of nocturnal visits and expected his staff to be on the job accordingly.

Well, thank goodness for individual characteristics, but let us give equal thanks to those who recognize reasonable human characteristics and plan accordingly. A man may work like a Trojan at his job but still resent being called to a conference at some unorthodox hour without the fullest reason. He will probably work late on his own far more willingly and voluntarily than being compelled to do what seems unreasonable. I am referring, of course, to internal conferences where normal working obligations hold good.

A good plan, in my experience, is to fix a conference where about half the time is taken up in "official" time and, after an interval resumed (if necessary) in "overtime" which is, even if consistently worked, regarded by most individuals as a "personal" contribution rather than an "official" necessity. This certainly had the effect, at least, of stimulating progress in the later stages, and also generally fixes conferences later in the day, which is a period more often free from "departmental detail."

Finally, just a word in support of quiet surroundings with the telephone preferably outside. I know a man who when he comes to a meeting invariably goes straight to the 'phone! I know a meeting room where you can get almost anything through because only a few hear what's going on. It is said there of bad decisions that "they went through as a bus passed by!"

CONCLUSIONS

Let me sum up my views on the basic value of conferences because in succeeding chapters I have much more to say about this type of activity.

1. A basic requirement of democracy is "reasonable freedom of individual expression."

2. To all except the leader or chairman a conference

represents the principal opportunity for individual "expression."

3. The most common form of self-expression is through the power of speech, the standard of which must be "the least amount of speech per unit of work produced."

4. The value of a conference is greatly augmented by careful preparation by a very small "committee" of an agenda, which avoids so much time wasted on preliminaries.

5. Just as wheel and flint are necessary to produce a spark, so should carefully selected representation at a conference stimulate all towards better decisions.

6. About ten people represent the maximum number who can give considered thought and decision to a problem.

7. If a greater number of people wish to have direct representation it is best to combine some into sub-groups with fewer direct representatives. The formation of sub-groups calls for good organizational knowledge and is a vital factor in internal relationships.

8. The physical comfort of members does much to increase the results of a conference.

9. It is undesirable to continue any session longer than about two and a half hours. The break should preferably be taken away from the conference room.

10. A conference is usually better towards the end of a day. The longer it impinges on "overtime" the more stimulated it becomes.

# THE MANAGEMENT ASPECT OF "GROUP" ORGANIZATION

*Big fleas have little fleas upon their backs to bite 'em,*
*Little fleas have lesser fleas and so* ad infinitum.
                                                    ANON.

*The more we are together, the merrier we shall be.*
                                        MODERN SONG.

I N the previous chapter I gave my views on the basis of the "committee" or "conference" and brief reference was made to the importance of conference organization.

In this chapter I want to expand this important subject more thoroughly, believing as I do that co-operation through more frequent and better organized personal contacts will be a much more significant part of management policy and performance in the future. If so, then the more thought given to basic principles the better, bearing in mind all the time, as I have stressed in Chapter 4, that "the whole must be achieved through the parts" (page 57) and that the "parts"—the individuals—are live, vital people who must keep those qualities in contributing to the "whole."

## THE GROUP OUTLOOK

In every organization there are a number of more or less cohesive groups and the first step seems to be to separate out these "groups" so that later they can be knitted together through the medium of co-operation. At this stage the psychologist can offer much in his study of the cause and effect of the "group mind." I am not consciously a psychologist but I am a believer in the potential value of this comparatively new art which in many directions is now bordering on science. Perhaps I should say "art scientifically applied."

In our well-knit organization these "common outlook" groups are not always apparent on the surface but any manager anxious to get the best out of his organic group should study this aspect of organization very fully. There

is no better microscope than the conference or committee structure, because here is where one "group interest" borders on the next, and where most of the fun can start. Here is where comparisons are made, by "higher uppers" and "lower downers"; here is where friction can be developed (and relieved) between the various "interests" taking part. Science has told us quite a lot of the "internal" effect of friction, and of the heat generated. The most obvious form, however, is "external" friction, where two bodies contact. If we pay as much attention to contacts between groups (or individuals representing groups) to avoid friction as we do in selecting suitable materials for the same purpose in a mechanical design, we are on the right road.

WAR-TIME EXPERIENCES

Conferences increased considerably in war-time. Many were initiated by Government departments, and one noticeable fact was that the internal set-up of many of the "departments" which conferred with each other was very unsatisfactory and would have repaid internal reorganization before an attempt was made to influence others, such as those in industry. This is a long story and certainly improved as the war developed, but many examples are available of friction and divided purpose inside those departments whose external aim was to promote unity and efficiency.

One knew of ministers who went up and down the country speaking of the necessity for unity and greater effort while their departmental staff wasted these commodities owing to lack of proper organization, aggravated, in all fairness, by the comparative "newness" of the departments and their members. Many of the industrial establish-ments had at least a "background" which under certain circumstances can be a reasonable substitute for good organization.

Outside the Government departments there was ample evidence showing a lack of appreciation of the various "group interests" involved. I remember only a few

months ago the case of a large company, where, after a survey by an outside consultant, the directors introduced a controller. He was introduced to the establishment by *memorandum* only, and his first step was to convene a meeting of all *junior* supervisors and to tell them that his office door was open! The feelings of higher supervision are easy to imagine! As, six months later, a Government supply department had to step in and appoint an over-riding control, I can only assume that conditions deteriorated, as I should have expected.

### THE FIRST LINK IN THE CHAIN

I am going to take the example of a normal industrial establishment as a basis for approaching this "group" problem. For reasons mentioned in Chapter 1 it is difficult to make accurate comparisons between many varieties of organization, and the industrial set-up seems at least to offer as good an example as any; in my experience it is certainly more likely to have clear-cut control.

Here is a list of the "group interests" we will probably find:

(*A*)   Board of Directors.
(*B*)   Management (so-called).
(*C*)   Senior Supervision.
(*D*)   Junior Supervision (Staff).
(*E*)   Junior Supervision (Non-staff, such as charge-hands).
(*F*)   Skilled workers.
(*G*)   All workers (including F).

(A)—*Board of Directors*

Directors form generally a very composite and "tight" group. I should say that opportunity for, and actual consultation with, the board of directors *as a group*, even by management (B) is probably less than that between any other groups. This may sound peculiar, but I wonder how many "managers" ever get the satisfaction of sitting in occasionally at board meetings, or meeting (except on a very informal and occasional basis) any directors, other

than the managing director. Many examples, such as the MacCormick plan in U.S.A. have been published[1] indicating how those junior members of management earmarked for promotion to the board are given opportunity for training. It is the exception, however, for this to happen, and the relative aloofness of directors, particularly with the growth of larger and less individualistic firms, has done much to rob the title "director" of some of its former quality.

There is a tendency for the board to be detached in the sense that more and more problems appear to arise which seem remote from the actual workpeople. This means that relatively less time is spent in the active atmosphere of the workshops and more and more saying "good morning" and "good-bye" to the commissionaires at the entrances and exits of the various "front offices" and Government departments coming within the broad range of interest of the board or its individual directors.

I remember recently the case of someone appointed to the board of a lagging munitions works by the Government department concerned. He was already chairman and director of many other companies. How on earth any such individual could give the attention $I$ think should be given to a problem of that order under such circumstances is quite beyond me.

Yes, on the basis that responsibility for good organization starts at the top, I would recommend strongly that the "closed shop" policy of many directorates is given serious reconsideration and that fuller opportunity is allowed to subordinates to know the directors and, equally important, for the directors to know the subordinates.

What are the ways and means? First of all we should decide *who* should have the more direct contacts with the board as a whole. This should be treated as a high honour, and invitations issued and accepted as such. Generally speaking, they should extend to those who nominally

[1] *The MacCormick System of Management*, by Charles. P. MacCormick.

report direct to one or more directors. This might mean such individuals as:

> Works Manager.
> Chief Accountant.
> Purchasing Manager.
> Sales Manager.
> Chief Engineer.

I think there are three main reasons why this mutual contact is desirable:

(1) Enables the board as a whole to get *direct* contact with company's chief executives for advice in deciding policy.
(2) Enables the board to size up those directly in the running for seats on the board.
(3) Enables the chief executives to know the "personalities" on the board, rather than just "the board."

(1) Now (1) presupposes one important thing—that the director nominally responsible to the board of executive company activities (usually the managing director) accepts readily a condition where, *with his full co-operation*, opinions are requested from the chief executives by the whole board instead of through him (the managing director) to the board. This is no theoretical point—it is the very heart of "conference" work. *Man is so constituted that when he reaches a position of any responsibility he is easily offended when he is short-circuited* (and this does not only apply to juniors).

We all know to our cost what can happen when national boundaries are overstepped. In a minor sense the same offence is committed, the same resentment caused when departmental boundaries are infringed. As departments are inanimate, and controlled by *men*, the resentment is human and is one of the most important things to avoid in any organization. Generally, the higher the position a man reaches the broader his outlook, and the less his dignity is touched by such short-circuits. Indeed, it is a strong point in a man's favour to have this broader conception, but don't let us fail to recognize the trait in men. It is very unwise to jump over any managerial "link"

unless in emergency, or with his full knowledge and co-operation.

(2) This occasional formal and personal contact by *all members of the board* with those who occupy the chief executive posts is very necessary to enable the directors to size up adequately those who *should* be in the running for seats on the board. I am afraid very few directors project *themselves* into the future as readily as they project the more abstract "company" itself. There is a distinct tendency among most of us to assume that we will maintain for life those individual qualities which have brought us comparative success. We discuss designs, marketing, production, finance, but very much less do we discuss ourselves or those who are going to succeed us. There is a natural reluctance to assume a falling-off of our own powers. I would suggest we visualize not the "company," but the directors and managers of 10, 15, 20 years ahead, because *they* should be our major responsibility to-day.

This sounds like "jam to-morrow but never jam to-day." Well, we can bask in our present success, but keeping at the top of the league was, I believe, as hard a job for the Arsenal as getting there.

It is very unwise to rely on one opinion only when managerial posts are involved. For this reason the opinion of the managing director should be reinforced by knowledge gained by other members of the board who have the opportunity, under the method I advocate, to obtain that knowledge. A report, prepared, presented to the board, criticized, defended if necessary by the executive concerned, is a first-class opportunity to gain knowledge of a possible candidate for one of those vacancies on the board that, by projecting the mind forward, must (*or should*) inevitably come at regular intervals.

(3) Some years ago a charge-hand told me that he had never heard of a certain director of ours, who incidentally was an active man with headquarters at the factory. I have just heard the case of a highly placed technical man in a company of world-wide repute, who told me that in his seventeen years with the company he had spoken

twice only to the managing director! How many such cases are unfortunately known where even senior managers are unaware of the identity of all the directors. No wonder rude jokes are made about directors, such as the one my own chairman nearly made to a certain person who, at a meeting held to explain company results, asked "what is the use of a director?"

Meeting a director on his occasional visits around the factory is not the same as watching him in action. Too often a "board" is regarded as something just as inanimate as its wooden namesake, when it should be visualized as a combination of living personalities. I believe some directors are almost frightened to be actively known to the lower ranks, much as some actors are reported to avoid public appearances because of possible loss of glamour or prestige.

I am not going to discuss in detail the ways and means of these *formal* contacts between groups (A) and (B). There may be invitations extended to attend part or the whole of the usual board meetings. There may be special meetings convened between group (B) as a whole, and certain of the directors. For the purposes I have in mind, however, and for the two groups mentioned, (A) and (B), I do feel, however, that although there may be other less formal contacts, the nearest approach to a formal directors' meeting on occasions the better, when each member of (B) could present a periodic report on his own particular responsibilities.

(B)—*Management (so-called)*

This title sounds like a doubtful breed of management, but I actually mean those who are usually called "managers," such as mentioned in Chapter 1; in other words, those who probably report direct to a member of the board. If *all* executives report to a general manager who, while not a director, takes the place of a managing director, then I include in group (B) those who would report to the general manager. This brings us right away into complexities such as discussed earlier, but for my

purpose I think that those who come in (B) are in full charge of functional activities like works, finance, sales. It is from such men as these that any board should first seek its enriching blood. It is safe to say that if "possibles" can't be found here, the company's training or recruiting policies are suspect (and probably the board!).

Now group (B) seems to me to have the weakest "group" outlook of almost any I am discussing. In the first case the members are drawn from widely divergent spheres such as engineering, production, accounting, office management, etc., and there is no "binder" in the functional sense. In the administrative sense there is often no direct comparison between, say, a sales manager and works manager; in fact, they may not often meet. Their terms of service, salaries, even outlook, may vary considerably.

All this leads us to the conclusion that there is little inclination for these "management" members to function as a group, except in the sphere of company or social activities *deliberately sponsored and organized.* Yet it is perhaps more vital than any that this group should function actively in the interests of the company.

*What are the advantages of group outlook?* This is a fair question, and I will try to answer it.

In many ways it is even more important for members of group (B) to understand each other than for a similar understanding to exist among the directors. The latter *may* not all be full time and more often than not they are advisory only. (Few directors have power actively to intervene in functional activities.) Each member of (B), however, is a full-time executive employee with, subject to broad policy requirements, full responsibility vested in him for the function he controls. Under these circumstances common interpretation of company policy and performance throughout the group becomes highly important. It is also important that these executives are encouraged to discuss on a mutual basis day to day problems of common interest, rather than going to an appropriate director at every opportunity. It is inadvisable

to go from A to B via E in the normal routine of business (see Chapter 4, page 59), and don't forget the normal routine *at this level* is the most important part of management. In many ways the men found in group (B) form an ideal combination in conference, as each is (or should be) fully trained in his own functional line and yet has (or should have) the personal and organizational qualities necessary to achieve *management* balance; the small number involved also allows for full "individual" contribution. What more do we want? Yet in many companies this group is not used in its group sense, but merely as individuals. (See also Chapter 4, page 55).

I believe there is great potential value here—how can it be brought out? Well, the obvious plan is to arrange *formal* opportunities, and a series of meetings may be arranged say once every week (or two weeks at the outside) when a fairly flexible agenda is worked to and each member contributes his share. I visualize these meetings as fulfilling the following objectives:

1. To enable the managing director (who might well be the *nominal* chairman) to meet *all* the chief executives regularly on common ground.

2. To enable the executives to meet each other regularly in the presence of the managing director.

3. To clear up any outstanding matters of policy and to enable plans and performance to be initiated and progressed.

4. To enable complete understanding to be reached between the managing director and each executive prior to the executive concerned presenting his periodic formal report to the board meeting (see page 104).

A few brief explanatory comments may be desirable:

1. An excellent plan is to alternate the chairmanship every other meeting the managing director and alternately an executive. This, in my experience, keeps each man on his toes, gives him valuable experience in leading the conference, and the managing director in weighing up this ability. No senior should ever be afraid of delegating leadership in this way, although it is rarely done.

2. Provides a definite meeting ground, which tends to encourage the group outlook between those who, as I have previously remarked, are likely to act too much as individuals, controlling individual functions, unless gathered together at regular intervals. I have seen many examples of unstable outlook where, for instance, the sales people consider themselves "a cut above" the works; where the chief accountant, because his office is probably nearer the board room, gives the impression that everything is subordinate to "accounts." Each executive naturally feels that his own line, possibly his own job, is best, but there is no excuse for misunderstanding or condescension based largely upon lack of personal contact and appreciation of the other fellow's job.

3. Is rather important, but must not be over-emphasized. There are many occasions where problems like holidays, contracts, special allowances, bonuses, etc., arise which are common to *all* departments. These groups meeting are ideal for discussing such problems, and (where a board meeting is not necessary) for *decision*. The works manager can then explain to his people "why that special consideration is being given to the sales department" *before* it is put into force, rather than (as so often happens) have his people approach him because they have heard of it through the usual "jungle drum" channels and "think unfair discrimination has been used." One warning must be given, however. Do not let these meetings develop into occasions when a "fast one" can be put over by a member who has stored up his point for effect rather than having discussed it during the normal day to day contacts. I would come down heavily on such an offender although there would naturally be no hesitation in someone raising a problem where he and another member had discussed it previously, had failed to agree, and had mutually decided to raise it at the next meeting. Even then it should be raised only if it is likely to effect the majority present, as these meetings should not degenerate into detail too much but should be what they are—miniature board meetings— to consider personalities, policy, and performance.

4. Is important, if the board meeting procedure mentioned on pages 102/104 is adopted. No executive worthy of the name would embarrass his managing director by raising at such a board meeting a controversial point on which he and his immediate superior had not fully discussed and reached understanding, even if this "understanding" had meant a modification to the views of the junior. Senior and junior should go forward in unison, and the senior should have every confidence in the junior's ability to present personally his report without getting in a "dig."

(C)—*Senior Supervision*

We are now beginning to spread our members, as each member of group (B) may, in a reasonably large company, control directly up to perhaps ten supervisors. For instance, a Works Manager may control such senior supervisors as:

> Toolroom Superintendent.
> Maintenance Superintendent.
> Inspection Superintendent.
> Canteen Superintendent.
> Machine Shop Superintendent.
> Assembly Superintendent, etc.

The Chief Engineer may control:

> Research Engineer.
> Experimental Engineer.
> Mechanical Workshop Engineer.
> Electrical Workshop Engineer.
> Chief Chemist, etc.

The Chief Accountant or Office Manager may control:

> Cashier.
> Cost Clerk.
> Accounts Clerk.
> Wages Clerk, etc.

Now it is very difficult to discuss conference procedure here without entering into a discussion on the organization of the various departments, the titles of the various

supervisors, their responsibilities, and (last but definitely not least) relative status. What, for instance, is the relative status of a machine shop superintendent controlling possibly 1,000 people, and a cashier controlling ten? Perhaps we had better leave this over until later; it is more easily answered by "job analysis" methods. Just now we might say that relative value is not in debate. What we are discussing is the "group" problem.

Now it is doubtful whether this senior supervisory "group" (C) has, in any but small companies, a strong "group outlook" for the reasons I mentioned on page 105 in connection with management members (B); namely, the diversity of training, functions and titles. (What, for instance, is the binder between an assistant advertising manager and a machine shop supervisor? Probably little.) It is therefore not very suitable as a "conference group" except on special occasions.

In Chapter 6 (page 88) I set down four "Purposes of a Conference"; here I want to discuss each "purpose" briefly in relation to this (presumed) large group (C).

(a) *Receive—Discuss—Transmit (downwards)*. Here the group should be called together at reasonable intervals to hear special announcements or an occasional talk from someone in high authority. It is difficult to get real "discussion value" out of such a large meeting but it does, on these special occasions "let all see all" and enables everyone to recognize the size and composition of "the "supervisors." It is very desirable also to encourage a mixing together of this whole group on frequent informal occasions, such as meal-times and social events. It does much to break down barriers of "works" and "office," etc.

(b) *Receive—Discuss—Transmit (upwards)*. Here the "large group" should never function as it cannot seriously discuss problems because of its size (see Chapter 6, page 93). With supervisors particularly it is essential to give fullest opportunity for *everyone* present to contribute and this is almost impossible if the group is larger than I have suggested earlier (page 93). What, therefore, is the best

organization to enable problems "to be transmitted upwards" (if necessary)?

The answer is to break the large group C into logical "sub-groups." Generally those comprising the sub-groups should have two characteristics:

1. The same manager.
2. "Common interest" bonds.

As an example, the production control department may be divided, under one manager, into tool engineering time study and planning, each with its own supervisor. Obviously this is a "common interest" group in having the same chief, function, and "office" outlook; other sub-groups could be formed with similar characteristics.

The creation of these "sub-groups" has been mentioned previously as an important step in organization.
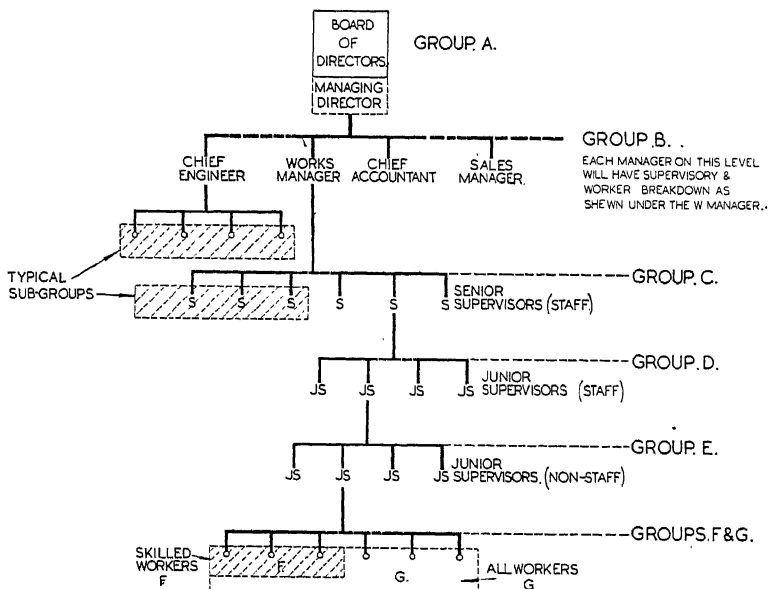


Fig. 1. A typical group and sub-group organization structure.

They form, if correctly organized, a series of sub-groups having the dual advantage that each member of a particular sub-group reports to the same manager group B and

has a logical functional connection with the others in his group; there are two common interest bonds (*a*) loyalty to the same chief and (*b*) interest in the same "sphere of activity."

Now what are the advantages of these "sub-groups" of supervisors (C)? The most important seem to be:

1. A greater possibility of continuous co-operation between those who otherwise are so near functionally that jealousies and overlapping are likely to arise.
2. Greater progress in the "technical" features of the function.
3. Opportunity for both the manager and his sub-group(s) to consult quickly on "personnel" policy and performance.

Let us see how a sub-group such as the production control sub-group mentioned earlier would operate. This sub-group of supervisors might have presented to it, possibly by a request to each supervisor simultaneously, a request from the trade union for added overtime allowances. Here is a case where, having "received" something, the sub-group could immediately get together, possibly with the personnel supervisor (because the problem is "personnel") and thrash out a report which, having been agreed by the sub-group, is immediately presented to the manager of the sub-group members. He might be able to settle it on his own, although in the case of a problem involving "personnel policy" the manager would probably in any case bring it up at the next meeting of managers (B) such as mentioned on page 106. Possibly a similar request might have been received by one of the other managers, but in any case they would, through regular meetings, know promptly what was in the offing and would be prepared. In any case they would probably take a fairly quick opportunity of passing on the information to any of their own sub-groups (C) who might have an interest in the "overtime problem" raised by another sub-group. The "lines of contact" are shown diagrammatically in Fig. 2 overleaf.

Here is a case where advantages (1) and (3), above, are realized, together with an idea of how the problem

can be taken quickly to a "management group" (B) and back through other managers to their own sub-groups. The "lines of contact" are no longer than with a series of "individual" contacts, and the ultimate spread of agreed understanding is likely to be far better.
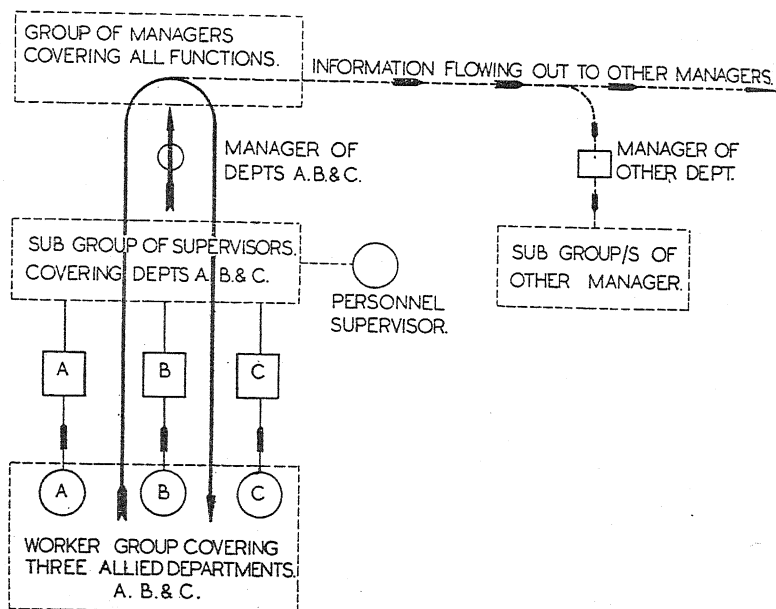


Fig. 2. The lines of contact in a typical group action.

Taking another example from the same sub-group, which stresses advantage No. 2 (page 111) a new technique of production is published, possibly in the Press. The works manager could call together an appropriate sub-group and ask for a report from it; in other words it would "receive, discuss and advise." In my experience there is a far better chance of getting a composite report in this manner rather than asking one supervisor to do it, who would probably have to get much of his information from the others, each of whom would more likely endeavour to put in his own views direct to the manager.

I have used this sub-group plan in sending people to other works on visits. There is always a tendency, if more than one person goes, for each to put in his own

report. Now the sub-group appropriate to a visit goes along and puts in a joint report which is generally much more valuable, not only in contents but in the greater pressure exercised by all members of the sub-group towards getting the recommendations implemented.

Just one final word on this group (C); it does seem to me that when a condition has developed to a stage where agitation binds together the *whole* of the supervisory group (C), that is, agitation from within or below, then a bad condition has developed, because the *whole group* cannot deal with any one manager (B) but must short-circuit its *various* managers and go above. This condition has developed in some firms recently and I should say that when a large group of *supervisors* reporting to different chiefs get together then something pretty bad has been allowed to develop.

In short, purpose (*b*)—"Receive, discuss, transmit—upwards"—should apply only to sub-groups, and a real co-operation should be established between them and their respective managers, with each manager anxious to use his "sub-groups" and the latter ever confident in approaching him as a sub-group.  .

The third "purpose of a conference" is:

(*c*)—*Discuss—Advise* (*upwards*). What I have just written about "purpose" (*b*) will obviously apply almost entirely here, the only difference being that the various supervisory "sub-groups" may initiate and discuss their own problems for decision at a higher level as well as acting as an intermediary such as described in the recent examples. They should be encouraged to use this initiative.

The remaining purpose is:

(*d*)—*Discuss—Decide—carry out decisions.* This in many ways is the most valuable "purpose" of all, as it implies *action of carrying out a decision.* Every conference, at very level, should be capable of *deciding something* and, if possible, taking action through one or more members, as here is nothing so sterile, so disheartening, as the passing f continuous resolutions, or mere expressions of opinion ithout the power to *act* on occasion.

The supervisory group (C) *as a whole* is not an appropriate group for this purpose as members report to different managers; *action* should be started through each manager in group (B), which can best be done through the sub-groups under each manager. To "discuss, decide and carry out decision" through a large group is asking for trouble. In the first case (I am speaking mainly of internal conferences) the conference must be conducted by someone higher than the various "individual" managers (B) involved.

Secondly, for the reasons stated earlier, a large meeting cannot think accurately and can be completely upset by an overdose of oratory accompanied by an underdose of reason.

Summarizing, therefore, it seems that among the grade known as "senior supervision" (group C) its existence as a large group is really justified in one purpose only out of four, viz.: to *receive—discuss—transmit (downwards)*. For other purposes it should be broken down into sub-groups, each responsible to its own manager. For certain purposes it may be possible and desirable to combine certain "sub-groups." In this case it will often be found that certain "sub-groups" themselves have "common interest" bonds with other sub-groups and can be combined into a "larger sub-group" if the purpose is largely one of "receiving for transmission downwards." The "larger sub-group" may, however, become too big and too wide really to get down to specific discussion. Just one final point here; don't leave a sub-group out of receiving information unless you are quite positive they have no interest in the information. It is better to err on the side of "passing it on."

(D) *Junior Supervision (Staff)*

I refer now to those who are junior to group (C), but are still staff supervisors.

Group (D) comprises those who, in larger departments or companies, may be called assistant superintendents, or possibly foremen. This question of title keeps cropping up even within the industrial sphere; indeed supervisory titles are often more difficult there because many Government departments have grades such as Inspector (Grade 1),

etc., which at least means something fairly definite. In offices the situation is such that many individuals having charge of a small section could not give you their official title. If one of them writes a memo he will probably sign it "G. Brown, Wages Dept."

It might be a good test in your own establishment to check up on this indefiniteness. Every "manager" should have a definite title and should use it.

The title "foreman" is widely used to denote the junior supervisor in my group (D). He (or she) is usually on the staff (that is, paid by the week or month) and is very often the *starting grade of staff supervision*. At this stage he usually commences to participate in supervisory staff amenities in a full sense and can honestly feel he has set his foot on the managerial ladder.

Now, in the company employing thousands of people there are likely to be many foremen. There may be one to every 30–50 personnel so that there would be possibly 100 in a company employing 4,000 people. As, however, the average size of establishments is considerably below this the number of foremen involved may not normally exceed 10, spread over all functions. Whether it be 10 or 100, however, the principles involved are similar to those discussed under group (C) recently; all one must do is to apply these principles to the appropriate scope.

The diversity of experience, training and outlook among foremen (embracing *all* departments including "office," as I am) is likely to be very wide indeed. This being so, I think that the large "foreman group" is not really a logical group with a strong "common interest." The "binder" is more likely to be the *functional activity*. In other words, the "foremen" of the manufacturing departments will keep together; the "foremen" of the office departments, and so on. This is perhaps natural at an early stage of managerial existence, where broadness of outlook is not marked, and much training must be given to the foreman to broaden this outlook to the "whole," while at the same time not forgetting the great value of attention to the "parts." In other words, show the foreman the whole picture but don't

forget that he, at that stage of managerial experience, will have and should have a decided interest in "functional" activity and progress.

There is one very important point in connection with foremen to which I draw your attention now, to prepare you for further discussion later. The foreman is often the forgotten man. He bears the first official *staff supervisory* impact of the rank and file pressure and to them represents "the company." He may, however, but rarely have direct contact with "management" in its normal sense, but relies on his own chief (group C) whose contacts with "management" are far more numerous in the natural order of things. The growth of joint committees, with more frequent direct contacts between rank and file representatives and higher management has pegged the foreman back a few more holes, with the result that many of them wonder "what are these responsibilities worth; what does this title mean; am I nothing more than the mud between the steam roller and the road?" We must see that these legitimate questions are answered.

(E) *Junior Supervison (Non-staff, such as charge-hands).* We have now reached the initial stage of management, where control of the smallest groups of workers is exercised. Practice varies in many industries, and within each industry, but more often than not this junior "manager" is employed on a similar basis to the rank and file workers. He or she is possibly paid by the hour (in factory departments), uses the works canteen, probably has no distinguishing badge or overall, and generally speaking is, as the R.A.F. puts it, in another sphere, "the lowest form of human managerial life." Many of the members in this category feel like that too!

They, even more than the foreman, have cause to feel that the responsibility of control, with none of the trappings (even a white coat) of control, makes it almost impossible to do full justice to the job, other than in a strict technical or practical sense. They are, as one put it at a recent meeting "the can-carriers"!

As a large group they are not usually bound together by any strong interests. They run with the managers and hunt with the rank and file. Their remuneration is often (in factory departments) linked up with the earnings (such as incentive bonuses) of the rank and file in their section and there seems to be no special reason why they should unite, other than as a series of sub-groups in their own departments, such as machine shop, stores, office, etc.

The real difference between the "conference" treatment of this group and those immediately above them (grade D) is that in many establishments they are not recognized as "supervision" at all. They are merely charge-hands or section leaders, and any discussions on supervisory matters usually leaves this group untouched and unmoved. This is, I think, definitely wrong. In many ways the qualities required to make a good section leader or charge hand are also those required for higher posts and the juniors should be picked with an eye on their potential value as seniors. I have seen many examples of junior appointments where, when a more senior post became vacant, the juniors could not be considered at all. The resultant dissatisfaction was expressed through the obvious statement that "if we're good enough for charge-hands why are rank and file people chosen for foremen?"

I strongly recommend that the charge-hand, or his equivalent, be given greater status, This can be accomplished in several ways:

1. Greater care in selection.
2. Consider granting amenities more in line with staff supervisory terms of service, such as "weekly" in place of hourly pay—a separate clock—remove pay from fluctuations of incentive schemes such as applied to rank and file, and line up more with senior supervisors.
3. Give greater attention to training. This can be assisted by the "conference" plan where, within the individual department or section of a department, the charge-hands may participate as a "group" in discussions on a broader basis. I know of several successful cases where this is done at "charge-hand and setters' meetings" when each week,

after discussing production problems, various "service" representatives come along and give a little talk on their own work. This has broadened the juniors and established much better understanding.

4. See that "policy and performance" is made available to them on an organized basis instead of by rumour or chance, as is now so often the case. This I will deal with in the next chapter.

## (F) *Skilled Workers*

In many ways this is one of the strongest "groups" existing, the members being bound together by two principal "binders": (*a*) craft, (*b*) trade union membership.

In an engineering works there is likely to be one comprehensive group comprising all the metal-working skilled men. In a railway company you may find more than one group, such as engine drivers, workshop engineers, etc., the divisions being fairly well marked by trade union membership.

These "groups" may express themselves quite often purely as separate groups, without reference to other groups or the wider sphere of rank and file membership in the establishment. This is usually done through shop stewards and follows fairly established lines.

With the recent growth of joint committees it was thought by many that the "separate group" approach would be lessened, but in practice it seems to be working the other way. The "skilled" groups are very anxious to preserve their full right to the formal shop steward procedure which was based on systematic approach to top management (if necessary) through certain channels. The channels of joint committees are rather too broad and are unlikely as yet to take the full place of conferences between management and various separate groups. In a later chapter I will refer more fully to the work and possibilities of joint committees, but right here I feel that a reasonable conference procedure between management and each rank and file "interest group" should be encouraged. One danger is that pressure may be exerted first by the "commando" group of workers for a certain

concession, than by successive groups after the same concession. This is common within a factory as well as between firms. It is always necessary to have in mind the possibility of creating a group precedent which may be difficult to avoid passing on to others. Even so, there are some good reasons why a certain amount of discussion with each "worker group" separately may be desirable, the following predominating:

1. You may be able to put over a new or modified policy to a smaller group much more easily than to the whole. This "working example" is then used to extend the plan to other groups or the whole.

2. Discussion on "craft" or "technical" matters with craft or technical "groups" should be encouraged to a greater extent than at present, where unfortunately many conferences are on ancillary matters. If we encourage craft discussion, training plans, etc., with the worker representatives there is a better chance of real interest and progress based on "special interest" group discussion rather than starting off with a combination of all groups irrespective of their close relationship to the problems in hand.

3. Many trade unions still preserve their individual characteristics and if the Trade Union Council to which they are affiliated cannot group them into fewer and larger groups, such as the A.F. of L. or C.I.O. of the United States then we are not likely to achieve great success internally, at least in the points of difference. Indeed, at times I feel like repeating the words of the French Chamber (pre-war vintage) when a Deputy said "there was little difference between a man and woman." The unanimous response was "vive la difference!"

The conferences I have mentioned in dealing with these skilled groups are usually not regular, being mainly *ad hoc* conferences to discuss certain problems as they arise. More will be said on the subject of organized rank and file conference work when referring to joint committees in Chapter 9.

(G)—*All workers (including skilled workers (F))*
This is not, under normal circumstances, a strong

"group." Too many types, interests, loyalties and functions are involved to make it so. It is likely to be swayed by (F) to a very large extent and even so the less organized sections, usually the office and outside staff, are unlikely to fall into line. It does, I think, take a *great deal* of misunderstanding or bad management (usually the latter) to make group (G) express itself strongly, such as by a strike, and I would almost invariably blame the management for letting things get to the stage of forcing the whole group to act drastically. Even the joint committee does not really represent the group at a conference as so many members of rank and file, particularly in war-time, have no wish to be organized or represented. They merely wish to be left alone. When therefore you find a resolution passed at a conference and it claims to represent the collective views of "so many" people, it is fairly safe (except among very "tight" groups) to divide by two.

Nevertheless, as far as conference representation is concerned for this large group, the only real way is through the joint committee, *assisted by live, interested, and knowledgeable managers of all grades.*

CONCLUSIONS:

1. There are a number of fairly well-defined "groups" in every company and the manager should carefully study this aspect of organization in order to get the best results.
2. The board of directors tends as a "group" to be too detached from the active atmosphere of the works and might consider more its own "replacement programme."
3. Greater organized opportunity should be made for senior managers and the whole board to meet at regular intervals so that all personalities and possible candidates for the board to be better known and trained.
4. All senior managers should be encouraged to meet as a group more frequently, with a broad range of discussion in line with its status as a junior board meeting.
5. In larger companies the "senior supervisor" group is too large to be effective except on special occasions for "receiving and transmission downwards." There should, however, be frequent informal opportunities for the whole supervisory

group to meet so that departmental and functional barriers are broken down.

6. The greatest value is achieved by breaking the supervisory group into "common interest" sub-groups which should be organized very carefully.

7. Each sub-group is capable by reason of size and "common interest" of close, quick study of problems within its range, either emanating from above, below, or within the sub-group.

8. This allows short "contact lines" between the sub-group and its appropriate manager; across to other managers through (4) above and down to other managers' sub-groups, thus spreading necessary information very quickly throughout the organization.

9. Many junior supervisors have no specific title. This should be remedied.

10. Special attention should be given to the legitimate status requirements of the "foreman" grade of supervisor who, with the greater number of direct contacts between higher management and rank and file is in danger of being left outside many decisions.

11. The "non-staff" grade of supervisors (charge hands, etc.) are often picked without regard to their potential value as higher supervisors. If regarded in this light they will often be given better facilities for broadening the outlook.

12. It is desirable to recognize on a reasonable basis the existence of various "common-interest" sub-groups among the rank and file as new plans may be better put into practice through the medium of a sub-group than attempting its introduction on too broad a side. It is, however, essential to have a "binder" which will provide organized co-operation between the whole group and management members; this will be discussed fully in Chapter 9.

# THE PRINCIPLE OF "DOUBLE LINK" CONTROL

*You know how the message "send reinforcements" became "send three and fourpence" at the other end of the line.*                                    Army Concert Chestnut.

Now, the purpose of this chapter is to deliver two messages:

(*a*) That "personalities, policy and performance" must permeate down and up throughout every group and grade in the organization.

(*b*) That there should be organized procedure for ensuring that they do.

In the preceding chapter I discussed the existence of certain "groups" within the establishment. Now I want to suggest ways and means by which these groups contribute to the whole, just as previously we might have discussed individual pieces of a jig-saw and now proceed to the whole composite picture.

There is a danger in stressing too much the existence, possibilities and requirements of the various internal groups. After all, even the most important groups are only a means to an end, and not the end itself. The end, or the objective, is portrayed by the composite picture, comprising all the individuals in all the groups playing their respective parts within the framework, each contributing to, and co-operating with the others in the achievement of the objective. If too much stress is laid on one group, if certain interests predominate to a greater extent than their fair share, then internal friction takes place and the framework becomes strained and possibly broken, just as one piece in our jig-saw will, if wrongly placed, destroy the symmetry of the whole, insignificant though the individual piece may be.

It therefore behoves senior management to consider very carefully means of producing AND MAINTAINING this balanced activity.

I stress "maintaining" because a very essential requirement

should be to keep this balance once it has been achieved. This is often forgotten, and far too many laurel wreaths are used as pillows.

## HOW CAN WE ACHIEVE BALANCE?

It is a harder task to *achieve* a balanced organization than to maintain it for a reasonable period, just as it is harder to start a bicycle than to keep it going. Firstly, in the new organization "group interests" are not strongly developed and attempting to control a collection of INDIVIDUAL members of rank and file with a collection of INDIVIDUAL management representatives is a hard job, as the managers of many new factories found to their cost during the war. In my view much of this could have been avoided by the recognition of certain principles which should apply to any NEW establishment about to start up, particularly those "extensions," "expansions" or "dispersals" which were so prominent in war and may also be necessary in peace. Here are some of the most important:

(*a*) If the decision to start a new factory is finally made, make very certain that the proposed locality is within convenient reach of headquarters. By "convenient" I don't necessarily mean near. It may be less tiring to reach Glasgow from London than say, Leeds, because of the night sleeper service. Many new factories were started in localities which discouraged frequent two-way personal contacts. The result was a needless clash between duty and reasonable comfort. Man, even in war, is so built that comfort tends to win.

(*b*) Recognize that the *managerial team* is far more important than any other, and although it may be possible to find a "collection" of managers of all grades in the new surroundings you will NOT find ready-made a *team* of managers. You must be prepared to sacrifice at headquarters for some time by picking from the existing groups a number of managers who, while satisfying the technical needs reasonably well, will satisfy the *team* requirements even more.

(*c*) Full opportunity for "home" and "away" teams to

achieve understanding before the latter go to their new surroundings. They *must* get the full blessing and support of the "home team" before setting out, so that later on, when "home" and "away" requirements tend to clash, there is always the greater possibility of agreement through personal understanding.

(*d*) Full opportunity given to the "managers" who may be engaged in the new locality to come to headquarters for several weeks at least to understand the background of the company and to know by actual contact its "personalities, policy and performance."

(*e*) The preparation at as early a stage as possible of a "production target" which will thereafter be used by all as an objective. This "target" should be prepared mainly by the "away team" and "conference" approval given (in conjunction with interested members of the "home team"), thus giving each "manager" an individual responsibility for the collective objective.

(*f*) Take more than usual pains to find the right sort of accommodation for the managers who may have to move to the new locality. It is not clever to say "that soldiers have to go from home at a moments' notice and so therefore should the civilians." This argument, however right in one way, merely irritates those who, as civilians, think as civilians, but who, if subject to compulsory laws, like soldiers, would willingly fall into line. The soldier compares his lot with other soldiers—the civilian with other civilians. Make certain that the wife and family (if any) move too, if the stay is to be prolonged. Many an industrial ship has foundered on a domestic rock.

(*g*) Consult the local officials of the various trade unions concerned before engaging personnel locally. They will be slightly astonished, and will probably respond by giving considerable help. It seems a great mistake to assume that these contacts should be made only if trouble develops.

(*h*) Consult local authorities, Government regional offices, and local employers. The head of the transport system in one of our largest cities told a personnel manager I know that he (the personnel manager) was the only industrial man who had ever approached him in this way. The response was flattering to management and helpful to employees.

(*j*) Once the new set-up has started, give the fullest authority and responsibility to those on the spot. Remember always the fact that too rigid a control from Westminster cost this country the United States of America. This is a very important point, to which I will refer again.

To summarize these suggestions, they come under the following headings:

( *a*) Choose locality where two-way "personal contacts" are easy to maintain.

(*b*) Recognize prior importance of managerial team. Appoint nucleus from "home" team even if latter is temporarily weakened.

(*c*) Perfect team spirit in "away team" at headquarters. Ensure constant contacts by "conference" and "personal" method between "home" and "away" teams before separation.

(*d*) All new "managers" when engaged "away" to be given opportunity to absorb personalities, policy and performance at "home" before taking up new job.

(*e*) Clarification of "objective" by preparation of "production target." This to be confirmed by managerial "groups" affected, both "home" and "away" so that individual responsibility for objective is realized.

(*f*) Remove extraneous worries, such as accommodation and family problems from those who will be sent "away."

(*g*) Consult local trade unions in new area at early stage.

(*h*) Consult other local interests in new area at early stage.

(*j*) Give fullest local authority and responsibility to "away" team in attaining objective.

Now, all these things, individually and collectively, seem to me to be necessary in order to *achieve* a balanced organization. They are likely to arise, therefore, mainly when dispersals and expansions are taking place, and while of great importance during war-time, may be so even during post-war conditions. I have decided to include reference to them in this chapter because although our war-time expansion policy has reached practical finality, I believe our adjustments from war to peace will bring many other similar changes—changes involving new teams, new surroundings, perhaps new countries, new products—and

125

it is well that in this transition we do not lose sight of the experiences so dearly won in other circumstances where the problem of *achieving* a balanced organization took years of time and masses of lost output during that preparation period.

## MAINTAINING A BALANCED ORGANIZATION

Now having, we hope, *achieved* an organization that has started to run like a well-oiled generator, how about keeping it running. Easy to say that once having started the flywheel sheer momentum carries it round. We know, however, that just as "perpetual motion" in the flywheel is a myth, so "perpetual balance" in the organization is impossible unless an external force is constantly exerted; remember the principle stated in Chapter 4 (page 45): organization is based on "action" and must therefore be dynamic in conception. So, in our business we find that we must exert constant vigilance in order to maintain the standards we have reached, knowing full well that friction and other "losses" will slow the organizational machine down to stopping-point unless we put into it *more* than we take out. (I mean *more*, not "the same.") If only we would exert the same amount of thought and energy in maintaining our business as we do without question in maintaining our gardens—digging, planting, weeding, fertilizing (and reaping of course)—we should do well.

Now, in recent chapters we have been thinking a lot about "co-operation through continuous consultation." We have, I hope, agreed that frequent personal contacts are vital and that it is also desirable for the various groups to have full opportunity for knowledge and expression. We also discussed briefly the relationship between adjoining groups. It is the purpose of the remaining portion of this chapter to enlarge on the relationship between the various groups.

First of all I do want to impress upon you the importance of these relationships. It is important to recognize the existence of various groups such as I have discussed—I emphasized this earlier. It is worse than useless, in fact a

real menace, to stop here.   Each group, however composite and strong within itself, is, as stated earlier, not an end in itself but only a means to an end, which is the progress of the whole business and *all* with it.   How appropriate is the old tag "Each for each and all for all—united we stand—divided we fall."

Consider the design of a roof truss—note how each structural member, complete in itself, ties up not only with *one* other member, but possibly two or more, producing a composite structure strong but economical.
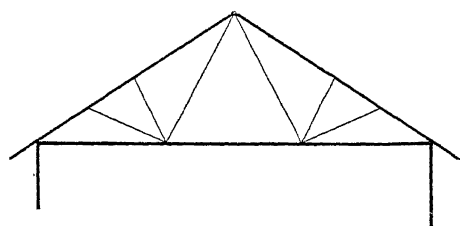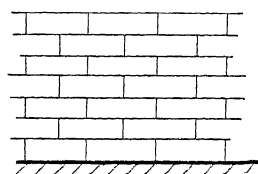


Fig. 1                                          Fig. 2

Or consider an ordinary brick wall where the "overlap" of brick over brick, above and below, contributes so much to strength of wall as compared with the simple "butt" contacts.

Or, if you want another example, consider the humble job of knitting, where the various wools or strands are knitted together into a composite pattern which combines the virtues of strength and aethestic satisfaction.   Well, our organizational groups, too, must be knitted together, and remembering the examples given above we should try to have as many "contacts" as thought reasonable so that the temporary weakening of one will not weaken the whole too much.   In other words, we must "double link" our contacts so that we know and are known to, and not only our *immediate* groups on either side, but also the groups *immediately beyond*.   Let me give an example:

The personnel structure of a business, on the production side, may be:

(B)      Board of Directors.
(MD)    Managing Director.

(WM)   Works Manager.
(S)      Superintendents.
(F)      Foreman.
(F)      Foremen.
(CH)   Charge-hands.
(W)     Workpeople.

The works manager (WM) *normally* contacts (MD) managing director and (S) superintendents. In my scheme of double-link contacts he should have, and create, opportunities for reasonable organized contacts with (B) board of directors, and (F) foremen also. Expressed diagrammatically we have—
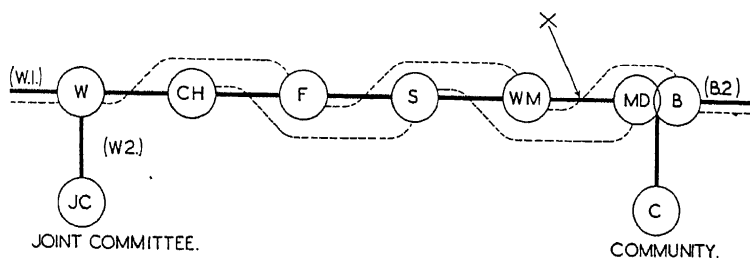


FULL LINES. = DIRECT CONTACTS.
DOTTED LINES.= DOUBLE LINK CONTACTS.

Fig. 3.   The "double link-up".

Note how the "double-link" contact lines go across the "direct" lines, such as at X. This I will refer to again later.

Now this is all very well for the works manager, you will say, but can ALL groups have such double link contacts? Let us see:

*The Board of Directors*

*Normal contact — upwards*—None (inside the company at least).

— *downwards*—managing director.

No normal upward contacts by directors are possible inside the company. This is not to say, however, that we should necessarily restrict contacts to internal ones. I

have already referred[1] (and will do so again in more detail later) to the importance of linking the company to the community. Here may be a solution to our "double link" which is diagrammatically expressed in Fig. 3 by a contact line going from the board circle to "C for community."

Once again, however, there is only "single link" contact from the board and we have the second "contact" (B2) stretching out towards—what? Well, we can find the "missing link" (no reference to Darwin) by *bending our straight diagram to form a complete circle*. At the other end of the circle we presumably find (W) the workpeople, and so why not double link the board with the workpeople and thereby create opportunity for organized contacts between extremes?

Now, having satisfied our point about the board end of the personnel diagram, Fig. 3, how about the other end, viz. the workpeople.

We have already given it one link, (W1) extending to the left (Fig. 3). On its right it obviously has two, a direct contact with charge hands, and a "double link" to foremen.

In the concluding paragraph of Chapter 7, page 120, I said this: "As far as conference representation is concerned for this large group, the only way is through the joint committee, assisted by live, interested and knowledgeable managers of all grades." Isn't this the solution? We make the *joint committee* our "double link" and connect the spare link (W2) to it.

What does the whole diagram look like put together? Remember I said we could bend it into a closed circle if we wished, as we do wish:

By the way, I said earlier in this chapter that I would explain why the "double link" dotted lines crossed the direct lines at places such as X, Fig. 3. This is to emphasize diagrammatically that no one should, in an organized manner (I don't of course include *informal contacts* in this) deal with people beyond the range of normal

[1] Page 47.

responsibilities without going through the person immediately responsible. I mentioned this before in Chapter 7, page 102.
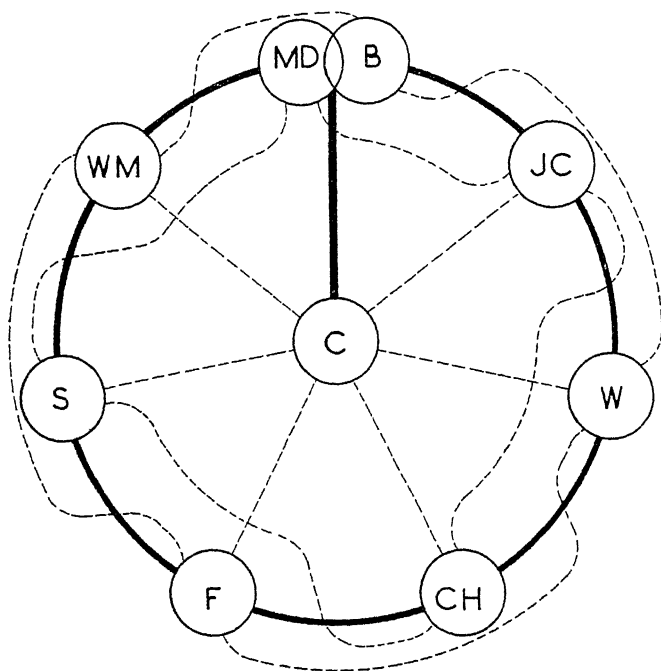


Fig. 4. The composite double-link structure.

Well, there it is, looking worse than a wiring diagram, but giving diagrammatic expression to all I have been talking about in recent pages. What do we see in it?

1. A closely-knit company structure able to withstand considerable external pressure, without much distortion.
2. A "knitted" internal structure where, even if one "link" became weak for some reason, the main structural strength would not be unduly affected.
3. A definite link through the board with the community, bringing with it a closer understanding between industrial and communal interests. I have not enlarged on the necessity for one company to co-operate with others, or with its appropriate trade association. These contacts are outside the scope of this chapter. I am concerned here

with social contacts, such as those I discuss later on in Chapter 10.

4. A recognition that as each group contributes to the full circle of company structure, so by inference each group is connected to the "community line" which finds its "formality" through the directors. In other words, each group, each member of a group, has a real link with the social structure called here the community, and that internal actions should be conditioned with that point in view. Put briefly, industry is not a self-contained objective, neither do the people in it derive full satisfaction from it alone.

5. A recognition that there is common ground available to all where the organized formal contacts are supplementary to and not an alternative to informal contacts between all groups. We *must* allow opportunity for these informal contacts, mainly by individuals who are exceptions to normal rules, such as the person who wishes to consult the manager on some point without necessarily having trade union backing; the manager who can have a word with a member of the rank and file while walking through the factory. These contacts which take place every day are invaluable to all and no formal system will ever be successful if it insists on eliminating the common ground of informality. The trouble often is, however, that in some businesses there is too much informality, which I think is worse in the long run than too much formality, particularly when the latter is on the "double link" basis, because this does at least create organized opportunities for discussion which may, and often does, become quite informal at times, such as when odd people of various ranks stop behind after a meeting and "let their hair down" a little more. The "informal" *may* happen—the organized opportunity *does*.

6. A specific place in the industrial sun for the joint committee.

7. A "full circle" recognition that the upper structure, as represented by the board is more intimately known to and knows the other "end." This, in my view, is of great importance. Read the history of coal mining as an example of worker-director understanding (or misunderstanding). Most such misunderstandings are based on lack of personal contacts, the improvement of which is

the whole theme of this chapter. I have seen recently the reports of annual general meetings of certain mining companies (and a few others) where the venue was in London while the productive activity was carried out some hundreds of miles away! What an impression on the workpeople.

*How can it work?*

How do we set the machinery of "double link" contacts into motion after having drawn the structure on paper? This is the easiest part of it. Let me give you an example.

In a certain company, which controlled several factories in several localities, the individual works managers held a formal meeting once every two or three weeks, each factory in turn being the venue and an opportunity thereby being afforded for seeing and being seen by visitors and those visited. The general works manager took the chair and invitations were extended to the board, and also to certain executives, such as chief accountant and chief engineer, who reported direct to one or other director.

Many subjects were discussed at these meetings, which had as their objective the following:

1. A common meeting ground for works managers from all principal company factories at reasonable intervals.
2. Discussion and possible decision on any "policy" problem raised by any members, and the passing on of matter of common interest.
3. Receiving information from the board for transmission downwards and often passing opinions upwards to the board.
4. Enabling those company executives outside the works sphere to meet factory management "en masse" and to pass over or gain information.
5. Enables directors to make contacts, to know, and be made known to the various dispersal managers.
6. Enables each works manager to "show off" his factory; and others to see and discuss it as a group. This is of great value to all; we often show outsiders round, but rarely show our own people on a fairly formal basis.
7. Makes supervision and rank and file of factory visited feel that an interest is being taken in them.

8. Gives opportunity for informal discussion at lunch; while travelling, etc.

Now right away you are approaching the double link principle where *opportunity* is given for links other than general and works management to connect up. Now let us "double link" downwards.

Minutes of each meeting are prepared and circulated to all present, with a draft agenda attached on which is included all items on the minutes that seem to be of any interest to the next lower stage of supervisors reporting to the respective works managers. A typical agenda is shown in Appendix A. As soon as this has been circulated the works manager of each individual factory fixes a date (usually in the late afternoon) for a meeting of all supervisors who report direct to the works manager of that particular factory. The latter takes the chair, and each item on the agenda is explained by him (or by the general works manager, who endeavours to be present as an interested observer). Constructive suggestions arise out of these meetings and are either put on the agenda for the next *works management* meeting or acted upon right away. Even in the latter case the *action* is reported to the next management meeting as it originated from that meeting.

Here you see the general works manager getting contacts with each supervisory group one stage beyond his normal direct range.

The next stage is for each supervisor present to fix a meeting of those who report direct to him, and to pass on whatever items of information on the agenda that seem desirable at that level—and encourage of course any suggestions from below. The works manager of that particular factory is present at these meetings and gets *his* double link contacts. Repeat this down the line and you get the full supervisory scope of "double link" contacts and a prompt spread of information downwards and upwards on all matters of common company policy and interest.

I won't give you any further details. If you haven't got the principle involved and the worth-whileness of it by

this time I don't think any further words will help you or me. You can work out for yourself the various refinements, and you will realize the obvious thought that the same common items of company policy can be presented to the joint committee *after the supervisory groups have been informed*, thus completing full circle.

In brief, I hope I have shown you the why and how of (*a*) and (*b*) at the beginning of this chapter, and don't assume, by the way, that all the time is spent in this manner and none on the "floor" of the working departments. Actually all that I have endeavoured to do is to stress the desirabliity of organizing in a better manner the contacts that are probably being made anyhow. From actual experiences over the last few years in the application of these principles I can only say that they work well.

CONCLUSIONS:

1. "Personalities, policy and performance" must permeate down and up throughout every group and grade in the organization.
2. This is not likely to happen on too informal a basis and therefore an organized procedure should be instituted to satisfy (1).
3. It is not enough to *achieve* a balanced organization: it must be *maintained*.
4. The *achievement* of a balanced organization is particularly necessary in starting up a new unit where a number of special steps (page 123) are suggested.
5. The maintenance of a balanced organization requires continuous vigilance by the managers.
6. The strongest form of structure, whether mechanical or organizational, is one in which all the "parts" are knitted together, so that a temporary weakening of one does not endanger the "whole."
7. The principle of "double link" control provides this condition between all groups in the organization, at the same time providing logical links between the internal "managerial" structure, the community and the joint committee.
8. The application of these principles has been a proven success.

CHAPTER NINE

# THE JOINT CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEE

*I have always felt a bit doubtful about the creation of these bodies.*
(Fred Marshall, Chairman, National Union of General and
Municipal Workers in the *Journal*, January, 1944.)
*A most important step forward in industrial relations.*
(Scores of people.)

IN the introduction to this book I said that the rapid growth of the joint consultative committee was one of the most significant developments of the war. This type of committee was called by many (official!) names, the following being a typical selection:

> Works Council.
> Works Committee.
> Works Co-operation Committee.
> Joint Committee.
> Joint Production Committee (J.P.C.).
> Pit Production Committee (coal-mining).
> Staff Co-ordination Committee (office workers).
> Yard Committee (ship-building).

Now there was little fundamentally new in this machinery of consultation between management and its rank and file employees. You have only to read the excellent booklet prepared by the International Labour Office[1] to find that during World War No. 1 considerable developments took place, and a few companies have had these joint committees or councils over a long period. The facts were, however, that such companies were in the very definite minority, and immediately prior to 1939 it is doubtful if more than one company in 500 (employing over, say, 100 persons) had such a set-up. In agreements reached between the A.E.U. and the Confederation of Engineering and Allied Employers (20.5.22) there was provision for a seven-a-side Rugby match:

[1] I.L.O. Series A (Industrial Relations) No. 42—*Joint Production Committees in Great Britain*; also No. 43—*British Joint Production Machinery.*

135

APPOINTMENT OF WORKS COMMITTEES

> A works committee may be set up in each establishment, consisting of not more than seven representatives of the management and not more than seven shop stewards, who should be representatives of the various classes of workpeople employed in the establishment. The shop steward for this purpose shall be nominated and elected by ballot of the workpeople, members of the trade unions parties to this agreement, employed in the establishment.

In the very large majority of companies outside the federation there was not even this machinery.

Whether we talk about federated or non-federated companies does not really matter for the purpose of this chapter, because the pre-war type of joint consultation was vastly different from the vintage which, by the time 1943 was reached, had permeated through the industrial structure.

It has been my lot to have played a very active part, dating from 1939, in negotiation and in the active running of several joint committees in various localities, and under various circumstances. I believe this experience has taught me much, and the views I hope to express in this chapter are, if not original, at least based on a wide first-hand experience.

THE BEGINNING

My review starts during World War No. 2. If you wish for pre-war experiences the booklet to which I have already referred (see note at foot of page 135) gives quite a good summary. Sufficient for me to say of pre-war years that the large majority of companies entered 1940 with little machinery of collaboration or consultation with their employees, except through the normal shop stewards procedure (where there *were* shop stewards, and where there *was* procedure) and/or the usual supervisory contacts. The practical expression given to "organized consultation" between all grades of management and rank and file was very little, simply because the "spirit" of consultation, as we know it now, was lacking.

Now in some ways this was a surprising fact. Bold imagination had produced those pioneers who, from time to time, drew attention to the vast store of potential ability lying dormant in the masses, waiting only for the door of opportunity to be opened. Most modern firms had a suggestion scheme in existence which encouraged those who had something to offer. Those firms who dared (and there were many) drew attention, through chairmen's reports and other such channels, to "the continued state of contentment existing between the company and its employees." Any occasion, however, when more active measures of "co-operation" were discussed by employers usually resulted in the view, quite *definitely* expressed, that little good would follow.

Then came the war—and Mr. Bevin. Whether the war alone would have produced the changes in personnel control and co-operation is doubtful. Certainly we have never had, and probably never will have, anyone in Ministerial office whose term of office saw such far-reaching decrees, such restrictions on employers and employee, and with it all such general acceptance of these conditions in face of the common danger. This may sound very sweeping, and on many individual occasions I and many other managers, together with Bill Smith, Annie Jones, and many other "rankers and filers," felt ourselves allied in condemnation of Mr. Bevin and all his works. In retrospect I consider a magnificent job was done by the Ministry of Labour.

## THE ATTITUDE OF ORGANIZED LABOUR

I think it is necessary to go back to the general attitude of organized labour in the early war days to assist in forming conclusions about joint consultation. Little real changes in management or personnel outlook were apparent until Dunkirk. Most of us, I am afraid, took a very unreal attitude towards total war. Managements, workers, *and* Government alike were to blame, and a great opportunity was missed by the latter in September, 1939, by not mobilizing the industrial front on a

more intense basis. Most of us were ready for the command.

We were even more ready after Dunkirk when, with the new personalities in the Government (brilliantly led by Winston Churchill) the grave danger to our island security, and our woeful need of munitions might have been reduced if a policy of industrial mobilization corresponding more rigidly in all its phases of discipline, rank and pay to the Services could then have been imposed upon us. The moment was lost, and so, for the duration of World War No. 2, was the opportunity.

No doubt the answer is that plans of this sweeping nature were not ready, may not indeed have received Cabinet approval in any case, but, remembering too well the many inequalities existing between the Services and the industrial front, which in other respects were so closely interconnected, I feel that if we are forgetful enough to allow another world war to develop we might start on such a basis, bearing in mind the fact that by that time the division between the technician producer on the home front and the technician fighter on the field will be less than ever.

But we were not mobilized, and it became merely a source of irritation to remind a worker that "the soldier didn't get double time on Sundays and why therefore should he?" The worker, the manager, the shareholder, judged himself against other workers, etc., and not against soldiers' conditions. This was perfectly natural, and I have referred to it elsewhere (Chapter 8, page 124).

I shall never quite forget the attitude of small sections of organized labour during the period after Dunkirk, when we first began to bear the brunt of the Luftwaffe. The spectacle of skilled key men rushing to shelter at the slightest provocation—and when there, standing outside most of the time; going out of the shelter at the lunch break (while the warning was still on) to get food, and on one occasion in my experience, even asking for food to be sent down, was a thing not easily forgotten.

I remember one occasion when a meeting had been called

between management and shop stewards to discuss progress of A.R.P. measures. Just before the appointed time a warning was signalled (although, as so often happened, no activity was apparent in the heavens). The management representatives were present on time but not until half an hour later, when the all-clear was sounded, did the stewards arrive, and were surprised not to find the others waiting for them. No word of apology—no explanation thought necessary.

All this in a works where a considerable amount of high priority work was on hand, where conditions were good, where generally "joint" discussions on security measures and the results arising from them had already taken place.

The "boil" finally burst, and normal healing commenced in at least one large works when, after a day of successive short alerts, during each of which nearly all the organized workers solemnly trudged down and up and to and from the shelters outside (you will remember the early shelters and where they were) the fifth alert proved too much even for the die-hards, and very few men ever bothered to go to shelter on the "first warning" afterwards. I often wonder whether the "cure," which took place in many factories that day, was inspired by someone in authority, just as many thought the alert in the London region within five minutes of the declaration of war, was deliberately given to "tighten up our sinews." Whether deliberate or not, the fact remains that on that day of many "intrusions" the Luftwaffe did the London region—if not others—far more good than harm, and achieved, through a combination of leg-weariness and common sense, more than national or local appeals were capable of achieving.

Now what was the reason for this apparently sad state of affairs? Many were entitled on the evidence to say (and did say) that the British trade union member was indifferent to the call of country. I say "trade union member" particularly because very few others, such as clerical and ancillary workers, who are not normally so tightly organized, and certainly very few women, followed their lead—they invariably carried on. Indeed, the record of most

women during the long air-raid period will ever remain in my memory as a pride and an inspiration.

Yet basically the "trade union member" was of the same stock as our women and our warriors. As an individual he was sound. Why, therefore, as a "group member" was he "agin" those things that seemed right for the nation, such as working up to imminent danger, setting an example to the less established workers, generally being co-operative about matters which before the war would have been settled in half the time in many factories. The answer is, I think, fairly easy to find. The long years of the period between wars (1918-39) were not so long as to wipe out memories of 1914-18, of the depression of the twenties, the General Strike of 1926, the relative debasement of the engineer and his *status*. An old advertisement says that "quality is remembered long after price is forgotten." Well, the price paid by engineers was fairly high between 1920-30, and his "quality" was lowered. Many skilled men now working remembered those days, and with remembrance came a vow, not in so many words, but just as effective, that "quality" would not be forgotten, neither at this moment of world crisis, or afterwards. How many times in the last few years have I met this personally.

And so, with the lead given by the Government, through such Ministers as Mr. Bevin and Mr. Morrison; with such machinery as A.R.P. and the early stages of personnel control, all of which stressed the importance (and occasionally the legal obligation) of "consultation," the organized workers as a group began to exercise the power that always becomes dominant in a period of labour demand such as 1940 produced, implemented by the circumstances of war and Cabinet authority.

It is easy to blame workers, All those in authority working hard to reorganize in favour of maximum output, setting by and large a pretty good example, found themselves more bitter against "labour" than they would have thought possible in pre-war days. It seemed such a national crime for labour to exercise these new-found

"rights" so predominantly over the "responsibilities" of the crisis.

The union leaders were sound patriots as individuals. The spate of Communism did not materially affect the national outlook of the "individual" worker, but as a large group there was a temporary tendency away from the employers. Consider the circumstances. The group had—

- (a) A great demand for its services.
- (b) A feeling that employers would concede much to avoid trouble.
- (c) A knowledge that employers were compelled to *ask* for co-operation on matters of immediate moment such as A.R.P. measures
- (d) A knowledge tha· with the constitution of the Cabinet and the trend of the war there would probably be a greater movement towards "compulsory co-operation" with the workers, with the workers as the "mountain" and not "Mahomet."

And so the group did what was quite natural, and don't forget that a "group" may act quite differently from "individuals." It considered its own "group advantage" before anything else and the urge for "status" became intensified. I still feel that the need for "group status" came first and was dominant over the money issue. The latter was almost bound to arise from the former, a fact not always realized.

Now, between two broad allied sections of a community there is not necessarily only a certain amount of "status" to share out, so that if one section increases its own, the other must decrease accordingly. Let me give an example: if the pupils of a school do well, then the head and his staff grow in status because of their share in the success of the "unit." They are obviously complementary. If a town prospers its officials prosper, while the town with crushing rates is unlikely to give its clerk a rise. Similarly in a business. The increase in status of the rank and file does not necessarily mean the debasement of the management. On the contrary, the wise manager knows that he

can bask in the sun of his workpeople's quality—and vice versa. If you don't believe me, keep your ear to the ground!

Many of us did not think quite so philosophically in 1940. Our reaction then was just blind fury at the delays, and impatience with those who thought that management problems could be solved any better by "consultation" than by "management" alone. We had not been brought up in the political field, and indeed very largely ignored it and it had not dawned on us that we were resisting a movement which, under the name of "His Majesty's Official Opposition" (leader of it paid £2,000 a year by the State!) we would probably have fought hard to retain as a weapon of democracy. If we did think this far afield we would probably have thought that our promotion of some members of the rank and file to the supervisory or executive ranks corresponded to the introduction of Mr. Bevin and his colleagues to the National Executive and that the "opposition" in factory and Parliament would be satisfied with this. We forgot to remember the Opposition still left in Parliament. We forgot that there will *always* be some left in the ranks to carry on "agin" us.

Perhaps you will think I am drawing too close an analogy between joint consultation and Parliament. I don't think so. During peace few of us would deny the value of the two-party system of politics. Politicians are often condemned by us, probably because so few engineers ever bother to take any active interest except at elections. Nevertheless the right to speak openly, the responsibility of making fair criticism, the broad reliance on the views of the majority, while respecting the minority, were worth dying for and are, I think, worth living for. I am a firm believer in the theory than an organization which works in the national senses should have, as far as possible, its counterparts in the local sense, so that there is a smooth channel for the flow of "personalities," policy and performance, unhampered by the "dams" of organizational bottlenecks. If the National Executive, with all the power at its disposal during war, still thought it worth while to

encourage the Parliamentary system, within the limits of expediency, then without doubt it did so for sound reasons, the most important probably being:

(a) The system has stood the test of time.
(b) The principle of "acceptance by the masses" through the "acceptance by their representatives" is a basic truth even though in war there can be less concession than normal.
(c) The principle of an official opposition is likely to stimulate the executive.
(d) The better the opposition the better the executive is likely to be, therefore the better the nation.

Let us consider these reasons for national joint consultation and, accepting the statement that human nature and urges, applied locally, is much akin to the application nationally, we *might* feel that the need for joint consultation in our workshops is proved.

Yes, you will say—quite correct to a point. The big difference is that Parliament manages the affairs of the State, which is owned by the whole community. What right has labour to demand a voice in the affairs of a private or limited company where only a limited number of shareholders own the business? Quite right of you to bring this forward and in the more simple days of peace a man had a right to his business and his conduct of it, within the limitations of Company Law. But during a war those rights are subservient to national rights. The State is probably the largest and often the only customer and the customer is more often right. If the State withdraws its custom or favour you go out of business. It gives you a reasonable return on your investment and keeps the rest. It lends you plant and equipment and tells you in many ways what to do and how to do it. If you don't do it properly you are likely to be kicked out. In many cases such as arsenals, ordnance and shadow factories, the State probably owns the whole outfit. You will probably agree, therefore, that when a shop steward once said to me, "We own this factory too and would like a voice in it," I felt he had a certain right on his side. We really were both on the same side.

143

Well, all these thoughts and contacts finally persuaded me that it would be rather silly and perhaps unwise to sit Canute-like among the advancing waves. I thought that greater recognition of "organized worker status" would be the natural order of things before the war ended; I thought that, rightly guided, the movement was charged with national well-being and that I in my small way, management, and the company, would benefit by the combined effort. And so I did my best to make the movement a success.

### THE BEGINNING OF CONSULTATION

In the early days of war many *ad hoc* committees were set up to deal with such issues as A.R.P. These invariably started with the banding together of a few ardent individuals, usually stewards, and generally had no close connection with the more basic movement which gained momentum later on, although they were certainly "signs of the times."

Among many of the established companies there was comparatively little trade union membership. This percentage became less as dilutees, men and women, started to enter the workshops. Many of them came from industries not highly organized, and although they may have been "registered" they did not immediately join the unions. The result was that the nucleus of "status conscious" skilled workers, mostly trade unionists, was in a considerable minority. Nevertheless, in the minority though they were, they certainly could lay claim, with management, to a high priority of importance in the expanding effort and growing tempo of output. The problem, therefore, to those who believed that "consultation" was worth while trying, was: "whether the few should represent the many or the many embrace the few."

We know now that the few wouldn't be embraced. We also know that some of the many didn't really want to be "consulted." However, at that time many attempts were made to set up joint committees with a great variety of constitutions. Some companies managed to get trade

unions and non-trade union representatives to sit down together; in other cases, like the Pharisee in the parable, they passed by on the other side, each probably on the way to a separate meeting, one committee for trade union members and one for the others, so that it could be said by management with a certain degree of satisfaction, "Yes, they are all catered for here."

I think that statement was the *only* satisfaction derived from this double-joint affair. From my own experience, and an examination of other agenda's the subjects discussed were often identical; the conclusions reached were not necessarily so! It became a matter of high management technique to know, when putting over a plan, whether to put it first to one and then the other, or vice versa. In the end the only solution was to put it to neither, but just put it on the notice-board—just like pre-war days!

Well, this phase should not be tolerated long by intelligent management. After all, managers are still supposed to lead, even with "consultation" procedure; and anomalies such as I have just described are not things to boast about. Certainly I wasn't prepared to boast about having *two* committees when talking to those who had none.

What to do next? Well, let us, again as managers, that is as people without too much prejudice and with the broader point of view predominating, say to ourselves that if one committee is more efficient it should comprise (on the workers' side) those who have a background of organization, of negotiating technique, of reasonable solidity (perhaps stolidity) and on whom we must rely to help us get on with the job. In other words, the trade union members. And so, in some examples I know, an amended constitution was put forward, agreed by the trade unions and the company, the old "double-joint" thanked for their services, and a new joint committee elected by departmental ballot, the principal change being that every elected workers' representative must be an approved trade union member, and if not already one, must become a shop steward on election to the joint committee.

What about the case of dispersal factories? Probably quite new set-ups where, in the early days, there weren't enough trade union members to go round. This was an experience met on more than one occasion. The remedy is fairly simple. See the few who are trade union members, through their elected stewards if any trade union problems arise. The formation of one or two committees on special functions such as canteens, A.R.P., coupon-sharing, etc., is a fine opportunity to demonstrate management's willingness to collaborate and to give experience which is very valuable when enough stability has been established to put forward (on one side or the other) a joint committee on broad lines. I have found this to work quite smoothly.

THE OFFICIAL VIEW

In 1942 two national agreements were published. One was the joint production committee agreement for Ordnance Factories (February, 1942), the other being an agreement reached between the Engineering and Allied Employers' Federation and various trade unions (March, 1942). Both are referred to in the booklet published by the I.L.O. previously mentioned, their terms of reference being similar. Now the latter agreement, as far as the engineering world was concerned, set the seal of official approval on the principle of "joint consultation" and *in theory* all establishments other than those employing less than 150 persons should have fallen into line. Of course, they didn't. Agreements of this sort are like standards issued by the B.S.I. Some firms carry out the pioneering work—the standard is drawn up, based on actual working experience—but it takes a long time for the remainder to fall into line. The various reports issued by such bodies as the A.E.U. showed that many federated firms had failed to accept the national recommendation long after its publication.

But all this is really a matter of statistics, described much better and more fully in the various publications I have mentioned. My own contribution to the literature available is probably better given by describing the impact

of these committees on managers, and how they are likely to influence the industrial structure in the future.

## HAVE THE JOINT COMMITTEES ACHIEVED ANYTHING?

Let us try to draw up a balance sheet, knowing full well that as we are not writing about so much money, it is particularly difficult to be "objective" in one's judgment. Readers who have already ploughed through this chapter will probably have formed the view that I am biased in favour of the joint committees already!

*(a) Maintaining and increasing productive efficiency*

*FOR:* They give opportunity, through the elected representatives, for the rank and file to assist management in maintaining and increasing production. This can be accomplished in many ways, such as drawing attention to bottlenecks, idle capacity, wasted effort, and improvements in production technique.

*AGAINST:* Any suggestions relative to production can best be put through a "suggestion scheme," which gives *individual* opportunity to all rank and file. It is doubtful whether many individuals not taking advantage of the suggestion scheme would bother to put forward an idea "through a representative." The J.P.C. assistance in improving production techniques would therefore be confined only to that able to be given by its individual members, who in any case could use the suggestion box with equal effect.

*CONCLUSION:*

The suggestion scheme should be encouraged, joint production committee or not. But—we should cater, not only for the individualist but the "organized" ideas also. I am aware that there is a tremendous lot of silly talk on production techniques by many "workers," including their representatives. A junior draughtsman would often beat the lot in this respect. But there are silly ideas put in the suggestion box also, although we still think it is worth continuing for its occasional high spots and its

opportunity for showing where talent lies. Many men have been promoted through their suggestion box activities; others through their ability to put forward good ideas on J.C's. Why not have one as *supplementary* to the other? there is plenty of scope. Incidentally, why not run the suggestion scheme on a joint basis? A successful plan is shown in Appendix E.

(*b*) *The settlement of grievances*.

*FOR:* They afford an opportunity for internally "letting off steam" on grievances brought forward by the rank and file. Possibly these grievances would result in drastic action, such as stoppage of work, if not ventilated in this way. At the least they might be taken outside the firm for settlement between the union officials and the management, which should be avoided as it weakens the responsibility of the representatives inside.

*AGAINST:* If shop stewards are recognized, the latter can be used to put forward grievances, in fact they (the stewards) often have, individually or collectively, all the advantages possessed by a J.C. plan. Why, therefore, have a standing committee at all?

*CONCLUSION:*

One thing J.C's do that a purely stewards' approach does not usually do is to publish minutes of all discussions. This is a certain advantage. Another is that organized "letting off steam" is better than bursting the boiler, after which (as is often the case), the inquest starts. I am assuming, by the way, in this section, that a stewards' organization may exist as an alternative to the J.C. This may not necessarily be the case, and I doubt if a really effective J.C. could exist where there was no stewards' organization back of it. On balance I think the J.C. helps to settle grievances by avoiding them happening.

(*c*) *Maintaining morale*

*FOR:* They assist morale because the rank and file know, even if the machinery is not always fully used, that there *is* machinery for joint discussion, which machinery,

by its very constitution, implies that a spirit of co-operation exists throughout the organization.

*AGAINST:* If stewards are recognized they can be used individually or collectively to encourage morale, as in *(b)*. Many managements in any case claim that their methods of "morale-building" propaganda do not need an intermediate committee.

*CONCLUSION:*

I should say that the company in which a J.C. exists is likely to have better methods of co-operation. I don't think that the actual J.C. does the biggest job in building morale, as management can probably do a good job on its own in this direction. Nevertheless, a regular meeting of representatives from all parties on main and sub-committees generally helps mutual respect and appreciation. I well remember a surprising testimonial I received quite unexpectedly from a rather rabid individual who, at a critical moment, said with some emphasis that "his experience with me in committee over some time had revised his opinion of management to a considerable degree." I doubt if, under normal circumstances, I would have met him more than once every six months, and even then only at a "grievance meeting."

*(d) The dissemination of information*

*FOR:* They afford management a platform for the dissemination of information, such as production targets and failures, personnel policies and the like. The "personal" explanation given to a number of committee members (both management and workers together) is likely to lead to better and more accurate dissemination than by notice-board procedure.

*AGAINST:* The notice-board has served quite well to disseminate information. Modern loud-speaker installations can also assist. In any case it is doubtful whether explanations and information passed on *directly* to a few J.C. representatives would in turn be passed on to an appreciably greater number of the rank and file than by

the usual method. The printed word, prepared centrally, is likely to be more accurate than the verbal "chain."

## CONCLUSION:

There isn't a lot in this. I doubt if the information given in the published J.C. minutes is likely to be much more disseminated than by normal means. In any case you can't hold up a pronouncement for a month until the next J.C. meeting. If there *is* a J.C. scheme, however, and during the preceding month there has been an important notice published, its a good idea to refer to it and ask if it was fully understood.

### (e) *Legal requirements*

*FOR:* There has to be *some* joint consultation by law (at least in war-time). Such problems as absenteeism require a mixed committee if the full procedure laid down by such regulations as the Essential Work Order is to be followed. Why not therefore use the main J.C. as a nucleus for this purpose?

*AGAINST:* The legal requirements such as A.R.P. and E.W.O. are war measures only, and can be covered by *ad hoc* committees formed to take care of these special functions only, as they arise.

## CONCLUSIONS:

Here surely is a case where, if an "approved committee" under, say, the Essential Work Order, is required to deal with certain matters, you might as well have one to cover the full agenda. An "approved committee" must, to be effective, have the confidence of the rank and file. This is obvious when dealing with, say, absenteeism. Now, the best way to get such a committee is by secret ballot, in short, the same procedure as for a J.C. It seems a little stupid to stop at absenteeism, although there are those employers who say, and have something on their side, that they will have only the restrictions imposed by law, and no more.

150

*(f) Welfare problems*

*FOR:* Many problems ancillary to the direct one of production continually arise where rank and file opinions and requirements are basically on a par with those of management. Questions such as A.R.P. (in war-time), canteen facilities, such requirements as are covered by the Factories Act (safety, health, lavatories, ventilation, etc.), arise where management has a responsibility to the State—which comprises, *inter alia*, the workers. What better sphere for keeping these matters in order than through either a main joint committee or its sub-committees?

*AGAINST:* Most ancillary problems can be dealt with exactly as in the past, where individuals took problems direct to the supervision, and others through stewards; generally all such problems as are covered by the Factories Acts can be settled by management and factory inspectors without having a J.C. to act as an adviser.

*CONCLUSION:*

It was not necessary before the war, many say, to have a J.C. to insist upon the employer carrying out his legal obligations. Indeed, many carried out extra-legal efforts to provide "better than normal" working conditions. The factory inspectorate was, and still is, the official referee, not a J.C. Generally, most problems like safety and ventilation, are dealt with on an expert basis by the safety and plant engineers without the possibility of much help from a J.C.

This argument is not entirely sound. I have found members of J.C's displaying considerable interest in and knowledge of safety problems and discussion on these matters is usually on quite a constructive plane. A good plan is for the safety engineer to call to the scene of the accident or near-accident the supervisor concerned, together with the nearest J.C. workers' representative, and a joint report issued on the spot. I can only say that where this works the accident rate has been kept to a very low

figure. Perhaps it was due mainly to the safety engineer, but it is difficult to say accurately. I think that this section is one well justifying organized J.C. activity, with sub-committee responsibilities well spread.

## (g) Building individual responsibilities

*FOR:* If we are wise we will plan towards a society in which it will become more difficult (to say the least) for a dictatorship to create and maintain itself. The second world war was fought largely because there was no other way to finish the centralized dictatorships that had spread their destroying tentacles over the free (too free perhaps, in the sense of lack of acceptance of responsibilities) minds of the people. Even before 1939 a slow but quite definite movement towards a centralized bureaucracy in this country was noticed by such men as the late Lord Hewart. Faint in substance perhaps when compared with the conditions in Germany and Italy, but quite definitely of the same shape.

When war actually broke on the world the process in Britain naturally speeded up tremendously. Centralized Government became more forceful and with snowball-like effect produced Order upon Order to make itself, in the interests of war-winning, still more powerful. Now this was very natural and necessary. What, however, was essential, once the central "power" had been collected, was to decentralize it—delegate it to those who, outside the central zone, were still willing partners in the prosecution of the war. Now is not the time or place to discuss this subject further, but the Citrine Report on regional decentralization under the Ministry of Production was an example showing the necessity of making use of decentralized authority and responsibility.

So with the post-war world. The spectacle of a vast Government machine with all its knobs and levers in Whitehall is just as depressing and anti-social as the vast industrial corporation with every control, all power and authority at headquarters and literal puppets at the fringes of the organization. We should endeavour to give

authority and its boon companion, responsibility, to the common man to the utmost of his ability to use his natural resources. That way lies full national vigour through the "integration of the individuals"; the opposite way lies dictatorship and the subjugation of the individual.

If this is true of the large it should be true of part of the large. It should hold true of the individual company where, if the "infallibility of management" is an imposed code in the interests of a superficial efficiency, the full natural resources of the organization are not fully utilized.

Few things are better than joint discussion on a variety of subjects outside the pure grievance range to instil a sense of responsibility among the representatives, among both parties, and over the space of a few years the growth in quality of the workers' representatives has been very noticeable to me.

*AGAINST:* The efficiency of a company—its ability to earn consistently good profits—depends entirely on its management: "There are no bad workers—only bad managers." Very few real contributions to progress are made by the rank and file and provided reasonable conditions are present there should be little to gain from consultation because management is able, from its own knowledge, to make decisions and record progress which will benefit all within the company.

This will possibly involve centralized policy-making and authority to a high degree, with the managers at the fringes having nominal control only, their principal job being to work to procedure, carefully prepared at head office. It may involve, in the interests of efficiency, the purchase of controlling interests in "vertical" or "horizontal" directions, in order to ensure the supply of raw materials or to eliminate competition. This in turn will lead probably to a directorate and management itself "centralized" to a greater extent and possibly more remote from any particular activity because now its main job becomes policy-making and not direct personnel control. Under such a system the best methods of

efficiency can be studied and applied because the opportunity for specialization on policy and procedure is greater in the larger centralized unit, with its outward flow of instructions, than the smaller dispersal units, where *ad hoc* decisions and expedients are too often the rule rather than the exception.

## CONCLUSION:

This is almost resolved into the old argument about the efficiency of the large versus the small unit. I believe it should be settled on *personnel* grounds, and not on the superficial basis of "twice the size means twice the efficiency." On the other hand, just as the old saying about "the penny bun costing twopence after marriage" isn't true, so it is not true to assume that a unit twice the size is no more efficient.

If we consider the matter on *personnel* grounds we really mean that the opinions, necessities, ambitions, and responsibilities of all the individuals comprising the unit should be considered in endeavouring to find the ideal solution. As a mathematical equation it is almost impossible. As a personnel problem it can be expressed in a number of ways, depending on the various "groups" within the unit. From a directorate point of view I consider an organization is too large if each director does not have a nodding acquaintance with and know the name and record of every foreman, and from a works management point of view an organization where every charge-hand or leading worker is not known, both by name and record.

This is, of course, a very rough guide and I could elaborate—but not here. Used as a rough guide, however, it is obvious that many of our war-time (and indeed many peace-time) organizations are too large. The larger they become the more necessary to rely on "centralized policy and procedure"—conversely the less does the individual at the fringe feel that he is a worth-while tooth in the gear. If we are to avoid the real danger of repeating that against which we have fought, suffered and spent over recent years, we should restore that status and self-respect, and

with it the individual opportunity for technical and social advancement which in the mass is our security.

The J.C. because it gives greater opportunities at the "fringes" seems to be one safeguard against dictatorship, and at the price it is cheap.

*(h) The intangible assets*

*FOR:* The safety-valve on the boiler, the fire insurance premiums, the shear-pins on the coupling, the medical and personnel departments, could be discontinued or left off without affecting the normal working capacity. The accountants would have a difficult job to justify them on pure figures and yet they are part of management's stock-in-trade, and, like the J.C., play their part in building up a more complete organization structure.

*AGAINST:* Most of the examples quoted as more tangible requirements than a J.C. and are likely to be of greater benefit to the mass of workers than the J.C. which probably does not interest many of them.

*CONCLUSION:*

A good manager looks at everything from a business point of view. "Does it pay?" Occasionally, however, he must use his instincts when the financial answer is not definite. Most of the examples I quoted under *(h)* are in that category. I believe the J.C. is worth another application of the same instincts. One might call it an "invisible export."

*(i)—The stimulus of opposition*

*FOR:* An "official opposition" should act as a stimulant to every grade of management.

*AGAINST:* Managers are selected and paid to act as leaders. They are probably better able to preserve a balanced view and community interest than any other body. "Opposition," if not carefully controlled, is likely to embitter and antagonize rather than stimulate the managers.

*CONCLUSION:*

This is one of the most important aspects of J.C. procedure. Looking back, I can find recorded, in writing and in memory, many searing comments I have made on the uselessness of the J.C. plan. Mr. Churchill, as supreme head of the national executive during a period of crisis, left no doubt at times on his reaction to much of the criticism to which he was subjected in Parliament. He remained withal a good Parliamentarian, and few would grudge the cost of Parliament as an item in the national balance sheet.

I, in my small way, feel from a fairly broad experience impinging on a fairly touchy temperament, that I have learned a lot from my organized contacts with J.C's. I have become more tolerant, know much more about the necessity and wiles of "procedure," much more about the importance of chairmanship, more about the importance of giving a subject preliminary thought prior to debate, much more about the "realness" of the rank and file in their respect for straightness as against sheer cleverness, and, last but not least, the confidence that I can still keep one step ahead. Yes, I believe "opposition" is worth while, although I won't guarantee that I shall not, many times in future, lose my temper (I hope in private) because of the futility of certain J.C. discussions. On this aspect I was interested in a recent statement on the position of J.C's in the U.S.A.: "The labour-management production committees which were hailed with so much enthusiasm by WPB a year ago seem to be dying out. Only one-third of the original peak number of 2,100 are still active. Labour representatives, according to managements, were too truculent and over-eager to criticize and assume managerial functions."[1]

FINAL CONCLUSION:

I am in the unfortunate position of believing many of the arguments on both sides. However, the judge must give his verdict, and having brought you thus far, as must

[1] *The Economist,* 4th December, 1943.

I. I am going to say that, on balance, the J.C's. have it. Not by a wide margin, but enough to make me feel fairly definite about their value in helping some of us through one of the most intensive industrial periods we have faced. Look back at the diagram (Fig. 1) on page 35; I think the additional lifting power of the balloons on the right-hand picture will be unquestioned.

You may have wondered why I have written at such length (it won't seem that long if you have been interested) on this subject. Well, I won't offer an apology. I have written about contacts with ALL grades of management in the preceding chapters. There are probably twenty members of the rank and file to one "manager grade." Each of these twenty has a full life to lead, both as a member of the community and of the company. He is a creature of flesh, blood, and mind. In many ways he is my superior. He probably has full constitutional voting powers and is slowly (too slowly perhaps) exercising his judgment as a citizen.

I realize too well the fact that many of his kind require, and ask for, nothing better than good leadership, and once he is satisfied he is getting a reasonable brand of it will give of his own qualities in good measure. If I, and those others who, through one sphere or another, are called upon to exercise our responsibilities of leadership— of managership, I believe we shall do our duty to the company, which in the end means the community, better by endeavouring to bring out the qualities and responsibilities of the "ordinary man," which in my view can be materially assisted through reasonable organized joint consultation. As Mr. Bevin said:

> I am bound to pay my tribute to the tremendous and hopeful development in management. There is growing into existence a type of managerial outlook and association with the people on a common level in our factories which I believe is one of the greatest assets we are producing for the post-war period. The war has helped us to find great managerial ability and has awakened native ability which we did not know we had. It has given thousands an opportunity that

they would never have had had it not been for the war. I think that the feeling is growing up that both sides in industry have a job and that less conflict will arise in the doing of it."[1]

*The post-war position*

It is surprising how many people one meets who say "Yes, this is all very well for war-time, but wait until peace comes." Well, war has shown us how to eliminate unemployment, which most certainly peace did not. War has, I believe, produced a very high degree of technological skill, both in design and manufacture. I believe that many factories would show a higher standard of efficiency than in pre-war days if their war conditions could be translated into a peace era. We have had imposed on us many conditions, the majority of which have been accepted willingly because they will help to win the war. Many of these orders are, in my view, desirable constituents for a post-war world. Who will deny that the necessity to pay someone for "idle time" if the person is still on the pay-roll, although he or she may be sent home, isn't an incentive to management to organize against these idle spells? Who will deny that a reasonable period of notice to terminate on either side isn't a help rather than a hindrance to stability?

Yet, if many had their way, managers and trade unionists alike, every war measure would be junked. Whether joint committees will be, depends, I believe, on their war-time value. During the period of writing this chapter I was asked to participate in a "Brains Trust" meeting under the auspices of the Ministry of Production. One of those meetings where about four men are brainless enough to agree to the answering of questions not previously seen. One question put was this: "What are the post-war prospects of joint committees?" To me fell the doubtful honour of kicking off, and I said, more or less, "that depends on their war-time value, but I hope, from my experience, that they continue." My three colleagues men of experience in various managerial jobs, all agreed with me.

[1] Hansard, Tuesday, 23rd February, 1943.

Now that was a hopeful sign, and I believe the trade unions would be well advised to consider this trend among managers, who are in many instances very sympathetic to the reasonable aspirations of the workers. Some recent pronouncements have led me to think that it is not fully realized.[1] One thing is fairly certain—we shall not be able to relax too much after the war. All the best elements of our war-winning technique must be carried over in our peace-winning plans. One of these elements is the J.C. and all it means. Kept alive, not perhaps by the spur of war, but by the same co-operative spirit which has been such a feature of the industrial scene during the war.

## THE FUTURE CONSTITUTION OF JOINT COMMITTEES

A few sentences ago I referred to recent developments in joint committee constitution. Reference to the "official" constitutions will show that workers' representatives are usually elected from among the trade union members eligible in each section, election being by secret ballot voting among all with a certain minimum of service. In some J.C's the elected member of a section may not have been a shop steward prior to his election; in fact, in quite a number of cases within my experience the existing shop steward was not elected. The newly-elected J.C. member would probably, although not always, be then appointed a shop steward by the trade union organization. Now there is a very significant difference between the election of a J.C. member and the appointment of a shop steward. The first faces the ballot box, the second rarely so. The result is that although generally the most popular person in the section may be elected as a J.C. member, the shop steward who is possibly more efficient, may not be so popular and doesn't always get in.

It is clear that there is a big difference between popularity and efficiency at the job. Many relatively silly people are popular, that is, well-liked and able to command good votes. An efficient person at his job has a greater

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[1] See a recent comment by Fred Marshall at top of page 135.

combination of virtues, but wouldn't be "popular" in the popular sense of the word. Few "managers" would be elected by the rank and file if put up against the mates of the latter on a straight issue. This does not in any way alter the fact that for the job of managing the manager is likely to be the best. And so, because there are potential managers in the trade union movement, these men, who may have persuaded (or been persuaded by) a limited circle to appoint them as shop stewards, find that facing the "popular" vote doesn't always put them on top. The elected member is often less able than the loser, and yet— he is the free choice of his section and therefore presumably qualified to speak on its behalf with confidence. Unfortunately the matter doesn't end there. The defeated "leaders" are still leaders, and being that type are not satisfied to play second fiddle. They want a place in the No. 1 orchestra, or if that isn't possible, *set about organizing another orchestra in which they can play their own tunes.*

I know of many cases where this condition developed. The results have been that the value of the "official" joint committee is reduced by internal trade union dissension. In one case there was agitation for another joint committee, under the pretext that the official title of the J.C. didn't include the word "production," notwithstanding the fact that "production" was in the constitution and held pride of place on every agenda. All this agitation because one or two dominant characters were NOT on the joint committee. Fortunately, at the subsequent elections of the J.C. some managed to get on and there was no more talk about another committee. In another case the dominant character didn't get on the J.C. and so, after a few electioneering attempts, there was further agitation for another committee, ostensibly to be called a "production committee." Unfortunately, the agitators couldn't suggest "terms of reference" because the existing J.C. coincided in almost every respect with the "official" version. The only constructive suggestion rising above the controversial stew was one whereby all the shop stewards must be elected by secret ballot, and from those

elected for the whole organization the most appropriate number would be elected *by the stewards* to sit on the J.C.

This has a certain virtue and gives a wider opportunity for getting elected, at least as stewards, when they can rely on their individual abilities within the group of steward to get further election to the smaller J.C. I am not certain what the trade unions think of this idea, as it cuts right into the shop stewards' procedure. It is, I think, worthy of trial.

In many companies there exists a shop stewards' committee, which is a committee of all the stewards in the company, although only a proportion of them may be members of the J.C. (if one exists). This S.S.C. is something akin to "the power behind the throne" and often debates and provides the ammunition and agenda for the J.C. members. As such it probably fulfils a real purpose akin to the "party" meetings in politics, and, in my view it is most essential that there is real co-operation between all shop stewards, whether members of the J.C. or the S.S.C. This is not always achieved.

Another suggestion I have heard is that the S.S.C. should have the power to elect, by any means at its discretion, the best experts available for the J.C. from the trade unionists within the company.

Now this last suggestion particularly, and the previous one to a certain extent, draws attention to what I consider to be a most vital point in connection with J.C's. Are we to have a J.C. representation of *the experts* among the workers, or are they to be representative of the normal rank and file?

Let us take our Parliamentary parallel once again. No one would deny that if it came down to sheer ability, we could find a better 600 odd members for Westminster than the present Parliament. Nevertheless, odd though some of them are (to judge from their behaviour and utterances at times) they are representative of the many types found on the electoral roll. Many learned judges have expressed their views on "experts" from time to time, and although deep knowledge of one particular subject

doesn't necessarily make a man unreliable as a witness or an advocate, I think that our ideal J.C. is likely to be weakened, not strengthened, by a plan where the "experts" alone of the rank and file are likely to be selected. On the management side there ought to be a good cross-section of those who have, by the exercise of certain managerial abilities, risen to positions of leadership and, being part of the executive, must justify their actions.

I believe the other side should be a normal cross-section of the rank and file. It gives managers a truer aspect of the shades and characteristics that make up the mass; it gives the masses free choice of vote. The "leader" among the masses who cannot get J.C. election by popular vote still has ample opportunity for exercising his talents. He can endeavour to persuade the electorate that he will be better than the present J.C. representative; he can put himself in the line of promotion to managerial rank, where, contrary to many views, there is ample room, room to better the conditions of the rank and file through higher working efficiency or, if this is anathema to him, he can, of course, follow up the question of promotion to the permanent staff of his union. Whatever he does, I hope he will be succeeded by other leaders among the ranks. The managers should be spurred on by the J.C. and the J.C. should be spurred on by its own electorate.

That way lies dynamic growth; the only alternative is sluggish self-satisfaction. And this seems a good note on which to end the chapter.

By the way, I hold certain views on the actual running of joint committees. Some notes on the matter will be found in Appendix (B).

# THE "SOCIAL" RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE MANAGER

*Ye'll note I've little time to burn on Social repartee.*
"M'Andrews Hymn"—KIPLING.
*Our interests are indissolubly tied up with those of the nation.*
Lord McGowan to the Shareholders.

THE two quotations above are taken from widely different spheres and the sentiments behind them vary as widely. The first typifies, in a personal sphere, those industrialists who say "they have no time for anything except getting on with their own job; let the politicians get on with theirs." Never the twain shall meet!

The second represents the views of many in industry to-day who believe that the twain, of managers representing industry and politicians representing the community or State, *must* meet.

In a letter to *The Times* (May 30th, 1942), Mr. D. Owen Evans, M.P., expands this theme with clarity in saying *"An indissoluble tie between two parties is like marriage—a state of great moment to both, implying mutual confidence, goodwill, and co-operation to achieve a common purpose. It means a partnership in the national life with joint and several responsibilities, and the right of each partner to have a voice in determining the action and policy of the other."*

During the war years this "marriage" ceremony was performed rather as one of "convenience" with the Government, like father, standing behind with a gun. Will it continue after the war? Already there are signs that the industrial partner is thinking of a divorce although there are many like Lord McGowan who realize that a bond has been forged which should and will never be wholly severed.

I am not going to enter the field with those who are already preparing for the battle which is popularly called "private enterprise versus State control." I wish only to say to the protagonists of private enterprise that enterprise

163

should not be a "private" affair, and being the concern
of all must be the concern of the State also.

## THE PRE-WAR POSITION

Many of us had little personal quarrel with conditions
before 1939, but, looking back on the mass unemployment
which permeated like a chronic disease through the
nation, and comparing the terrible waste of individual
purpose and pride of those days with the full utilization of
the last few war years we must, however anti-social we
regard war to be, realize at least that the feeling of being
wanted, of performing a useful function in the community
is a grand thing and well worth preserving; indeed to the
common man is the essence of his victory outlook. I
regard the problem of reducing unemployment to be the
greatest single problem confronting the community after
the war, and one which will require all the qualities of
managers to solve. How can they tackle it?

## CO-OPERATION WITH THE STATE

Those managers who have controlled business organiza-
tions during the war will know the extent to which the
Government has exercised its powers. It has been popu-
larly supposed to represent the "dead hand" holding us
back from exercising our full powers. I doubt it very
much. I will even go as far as to say that, within my own
experience as a manager during that period, no restrictions
of any magnitude were imposed, except those which
seemed necessary to maintain the equitable distribution
of certain materials (including profits!) and ensuring fair
quality and prices.

Much fuss was made periodically at the irritations
roused by Government forms, the difficulties of priorities
and the allocation of contracts. I believe these were little
more than growing (and groaning) pains on both sides,
although I do not want to minimize the importance of
removing irritants even though they are relatively small
in proportion to the main job.

Remember that I am speaking as a manager, and not

necessarily as a shareholder. If we are perfectly honest, most of us, as managers, will say that the restrictions imposed *outside the "industrial equivalent of personal rationing" were those of our own limitations.* This is most important, and if it has your agreement it means that we really have little to fear beyond ourselves if Government control reaches no higher proportion than at present. Most agree that the end of war will not see the end of restrictions, and I agree that it may be necessary to press for reasonable relaxation to avoid a continuation of unnecessary bureaucracy. I am not, however, sanguine enough to think that industry can work out its own destiny without a considerable measure of State assistance, and my own managerial experiences, pre-war and war-time, tell me that management of the right quality should be helped, not hindered, by a closer understanding of the State's responsibility to the rank and file, who, for a large part of the day, are also very much the responsibility of management.

CAN INDUSTRY PERFORM ITS TRUE FUNCTION WITHOUT CLOSER COLLABORATION WITH THE STATE?

I must refer once again to the incidence of unemployment before the war; how, on a post-war continuation of *pre-war* practices, can industry ensure an improvement in this social crime? What has been learned by us during the war years that would justify an improvement after the war if we "revert to type"?

Let us take the "organization" of industry first. There are two main interests affected, (a) the industrialists, and (b) the trade unions, and of the two I should say the latter have improved their organizations most, with a centralized trade union council spreading its contacts through rather fewer unions of many trades, national and local committees, strengthened by a considerably greater membership. Easy to say that the unions have their troubles and only a temporary war-time increase in strength. The fact remains that they should be better equipped after the war, but mainly, I am afraid, in a

negative sense rather than the positive one of industrial enterprise which is the direct responsibility of the managers. By "negative" I don't mean an antagonism to enterprise but rather an emphasis on social security measures, the 40-hour week, two weeks' holiday with pay, and so on, all good things *which must, however, be earned.*

The creation of conditions under which these social amenities may be justifiably conceded by industry is going to be a prime responsibility of future managers, and during the period of completing this book I have been happy to read two statements which lend support to my views. The first is by Charles Dukes, C.B.E., General Secretary of the National Union of General and Municipal Workers, who, writing in the July issue of the Journal, states, *inter alia,* "*when we leave the field of Social Services 'Reform' and turn our minds to the problem of post-war industry, we come more closely to grips with the realities of the post-war world. A great deal of ink has been spilled over this and that adjustment of social insurance and over amending legislation of that kind. Many of those matters stand in need of drastic amendment, but there is always the danger of becoming obsessed with these palliative measures to the exclusion of the basic economic problems as they may exist in the post-war world.*" . . .

"*Those who expect big margins out of which to finance great schemes of social development will encounter almost insuperable obstacles. Just as in the home, so in National Government, you cannot spend more than you earn, particularly after five years of war-time expenditure.*" . . .

"*We strongly urge planning for full production and however the balance between Public and Private enterprise is struck, the State must finally be held responsible for FULL WORK AT FULL WAGES. Without this, the reform of our Social Services, or for that matter any other political palliative, becomes impracticable. Put the work problem right and the rest will follow, but throw the emphasis upon measures of reform to the exclusion of the main problem of continuous employment and we shall merely be feeding the dog with its own tail.*"

The other statement is made in the foreword to the Government's White Paper on "Employment Policy":

*"But the success of the policy outlined in this Paper will ultimately depend on the understanding and support of the community as a whole—and especially on the efforts of employers and workers in industry; for without a rising standard of industrial efficiency we cannot achieve a high level of employment combined with a rising standard of living."*

Now what about (*a*) the industrialists? I fail to see much improvement in their national organizations during the war. They do not even speak with a single voice and although attempts have been made to improve this condition I don't believe much success has been registered.

During the war considerable co-operation between individual companies, even competitors, has been practised, but already I see signs of a deterioration, although, to their credit, most modern managers welcome visitors and are likely to continue doing so. In this respect they emulate their colleagues in the U.S.A. where the "open door" (in peace-time at least) is the rule.

The "open door" as practised between individual companies is not, however, a substitute for national and local organization, and I fail to see, at the moment, an organizational improvement among industrialists that would, after the war, create better conditions for controlling national unemployment than we had before. The price of power is "responsibility for public good" and the power of industry must co-operate with the power of the State, with the latter partner taking a greater share in running the national home, of which industry is a part and not apart.

THE MANAGER'S RESPONSIBILITIES FOR FULL EM-
PLOYMENT

There are so many factors involved in creating conditions for full employment that the industrial manager may seem to have merely a small part to play. I believe that part is important and I will attempt to show how, within his industrial scope he can help.

What are the principal reasons for unemployment? Here are the most important:

(a) Decreased purchasing caused by individual lack of confidence in one's future.

(b) Seasonal variations which affect producers as well as distributors.

(c) Lack of district flexibility, which gives little possibility of alternative employment to those affected by reduction of work in the "basic" trade of the district.

(d) Individual lack of a basic trade.

(e) Individual lack of flexibility, which reduces the possibility of taking alternative employment.

(f) The introduction of technological changes.

*(a)—Decreased purchasing caused by individual lack of confidence in one's future*

What causes lack of confidence in one's future? The outlook towards one's job and country seem to dominate. The national outlook is outside the scope of this chapter, except in the sense that "many a mickle makes a muckle" and the actions of a lot of companies added together create a national condition for good or bad. It is not enough, therefore, to say that the national outlook is the job of others; we, and others like us, by integration form the whole, and the whole is not better than the sum of the parts. Let us therefore, as managers, take the responsibility for (a) within our own grasp and say "how can we create confidence in the company among its members?" The following means suggest themselves:

1. An active, co-operative Board of Directors.
2. A sound managerial training and promotion plan.
3. An "organization" in advance of the new demands made upon it.
4. A sound research department (product and production).
5. An up-to-date plant.
6. Good working conditions.
7. Encouragement of continuous "service" in the company by pension and other such plans which discourage temporary employment, and encourage stability of programme and employment.

Of these, I have given my views on the first three in oher chapters. The others should follow from them,

although under (7) I want to say that such regulations as the Essential Works Order, with its provisions of one week's notice, and a guaranteed weekly payment to those available for work, are far-reaching social provisions which I hope will continue after the war. They have, I know, forced many managers to improve their personnel and handling technique because it is not quite so easy to "take the course of least resistance." Anything that does that to human beings in connection with human beings is a good thing.

Some have condemned measures like the E.W.O. on the score of added cost to the company. I doubt whether it represents half of one per cent.

*(b) Seasonal variations which affect producers as well as distributors*

To a certain extent this is part of (a). There has been shocking disregard for this aspect of unemployment in the past, not only in U.S.A. where it was practised in a mass manner in some industries, but in this country.

The problem is difficult, and perhaps it is not always easy to avoid seasonal demands for ice-cream, river boating, Christmas decorations, and so on. It is not impossible, however, and the opportunities created to stabilize the company's personnel by ice-cream in the summer and sausages in the winter may be carried over into many trades. It may be done by:

1. Finding suitable "off-season" alternatives.
2. Creating, by advertising, etc., a new "demand period" to iron out the peaks.
3. Minimizing the "personnel" problems by letting the *producing* part of the company spread its output more evenly over the year although *selling* may be concentrated into shorter periods.
4. Using local "part-timers" such as married women, who although going out of industry after the war, may still constitute a valuable reserve buffer for "peak" requirements. We have realized during the war what they can do and how quickly we can teach them.

All these are possible to enterprising boards and managers. There are many ways by which factory equalization can be improved, even down to the method employed by some of doing all painting, decoration, long-term repair work, etc., in "off" periods. This may give marginal relief, and is worth-while, but basically the solution is more complex and one which must be the concern of every manager with social obligations (and he shouldn't be one if he hasn't!)

How far it is possible for the State to control distribution so that this general condition is minimized I don't know; I believe it must give broad guidance on priorities or allocations of materials and the detail work taken over more by co-operation between trade associations, which must, however, give the general impression of being more concerned with trade *efficiency* than at present.

## (c)—Lack of district flexibility

Reference to the "depressed areas" of pre-war days (Scotland, N.E. England, Wales, etc.) will remind us of the problem of having all our eggs in one basket. Many attempts were made, such as the Hillington Estate, near Glasgow, to bring to areas formerly having only one basic industry, such as shipbuilding, or heavy engineering, a greater variety of production. These experiments were only a partial success and, as is so often the case, unfortunately it required a war to settle the problem of full employment in these areas.

After the war I am afraid that compulsory legislation may be required to make us spread our eggs, as I see no other way to make say, a Londoner go to Glasgow (the reverse seems easy!).

Just recently the problem has been taken up actively by certain interested bodies, and I wish them every success, although the problem is difficult. How can managers help?

It seems to me that the solution depends as much on the adaptability of the managers in these areas as on any other single factor, The myth that only Scotsmen make good

engineers has been exploded everywhere except in Scotland. Generally the heavy industries are not so advanced as the light industries and most of the problems of "area depression" are connected with the heavy industries; they are likely to be so after the war because of the relative growth of goods such as radio, aeroplane, plastics, and housing requirements which call for many varying techniques of production, mainly, however, on the light side.

The managers can therefore do something by studying all that is best in the management and production techniques employed in other fields, and see that their own youngsters are brought up with a more flexible outlook. To give a specific example of what I mean, the courses or activities in supervisory, production and administrative training have not been anywhere near so active in the older established areas as elsewhere. The responsibility for sponsoring, for giving facilities, for giving continued support to candidates for such training rests primarily with those at the top. I believe also that as managers we must be prepared far more in future to be "told where to manufacture," knowing that a prosperous London cannot survive alongside a depressed Glasgow. During the war I have been intimately concerned with moving large industrial units from one part of the country to another, based on the availability of labour. The practical difficulties were not immeasurably difficult; the ultimate effect on increased production and greater utilization of our country's people was considerable. Let us once again consider the national balance-sheet before we condemn restrictions on our industrial liberty as plain bureaucracy.

*(d)—Individual lack of a basic trade*

The main purpose of the next chapter is to draw attention to the importance of good training for every entrant to industry. Some will obviously progress farther than others, but certainly relatively more youths than in the past should feel that they have a "trade," and, equally important, a trade they like.

Most cases of unemployment arise among casual workers;

where the misfits are, where odd-jobbing is done, because no one job can be done well. I don't think we shall eliminate this type of person while we have lower brackets of human existence, but at least we can try to make everyone more useful and hope that our war-time experiences in training misfits to fit, combined with the other improvements, will enable more constant employment to be offered. It can come about only if we accept responsibility for training, to the utmost of their abilities, *all* entrants to industry, instead of only a small proportion, as most do now.

*(e)—Individual lack of flexibility*

This factor may seem to cut across the preceding section *(d)*. Do we want flexibility of occupation when we are encouraging a settling down to the job? Let me give an example:

In the modern toolroom there has been a tendency, starting before the war, to sectionalize the department into groups, such as turning, milling, grinding, assembly, etc., each with its normal complement of specialist workers. This gave certain improvements in *direct* efficiency, but experience showed up some disadvantages. Here is a summary of them:

*Advantages:*

1.A Gives greater specialized attention to "utilization technique" of the equipment in each group by supervision and workers.
2.A Enables trainee or lower-skilled personnel to be used because a narrower range of knowledge is required to perform only a "specialist" function.
3.A Requires possibly less equipment in department because of greater utilization.

*Disadvantages:*

1.D Not applicable to smaller departments.
2.D Not liked so much by workers who feel generally that their interest, scope, and possibility of continuity of employment in a narrow sphere, is limited.

172

3.D Difficult to balance "group" labour to departmental requirements and therefore greater labour cost which would tend to neutralize 1.A above.

4.D Tends to slow down movement of work through department.

This problem, which I have analysed on a toolroom basis, reminds one of the old problem of production engineers "shall we produce by product or by process?" It is difficult to give an answer other than that "it all depends on product and process." The technical efficiency is improved by "process" specialization, but the personnel interest is better in "product" specialization.

I think we can say that the system which gives greater overall stability of labour inside the company is best as long as we do not sacrifice too much efficiency and create unemployment some other way. That seems to give bias towards a more general application of labour to various jobs, and a moving around of personnel from one job to another in the department fairly frequently. Most men prefer this, although women are not quite so keen. It gives a greater interest in work, and tends to avoid regarding people as specialists, with the possibility that if the specialist job goes, they go too.

Some might say, in these days of highly-developed techniques in so many spheres that a man *must* specialize to do a job reasonably well. I don't necessarily agree. The skilled man, years ago, was a man of wide experience, which consisted often of "wangling" good work out of poor equipment. He had to know the "feel of the machine" and his skill in this was the principal aid·to success. To-day he has infinitely better equipment and has time therefore to acquire a broader knowledge of the uses of that equipment, and with it a capacity for performing a wider range of good work.

While writing this chapter I have read of a discussion among shop steward boiler-makers in Scotland on their concern over the introduction of welding as a new technique. Many were in favour of taking a stand against it, but wiser counsels seem to have prevailed, who took the

view that "it was futile to oppose these new methods, and a more useful purpose might be solved in insisting that apprentice boiler-makers be *trained as welders also, so that the variety of work available to members could be greatly extended.*"

I hope such an outlook will prevail to a greater extent among organized skilled men, with the appropriate encouragement and facilities granted by managers. I hope we shall avoid the spectacle I have seen where "turners" have been released while at the same time "millers" are being engaged. It is *not* debasing the skill of the skilled man to make him more flexible; it is giving him greater possibilities and with him the company and the State.

The position of the unskilled or semi-skilled man is relatively easier in the direction of flexibility. War experience should have taught us the value of intensive short-term training and there is really little excuse for managers who won't go out of their way to ensure, internally, a flexibility of labour supply which, if achieved, should go some way towards ensuring a more constant pay-roll, with all the increase in individual, company, and State prosperity that implies.

Some will say that this sort of thing will increase cost. Well, what is cost? Could we not look at it from the point of view that "overheads," a very high part of total cost, can be divided up into internal and external, the latter being the amount we pay the State. It is a pity we do not ask our accountants to break down the national overheads in our internal balance sheet so that we realize more fully the importance of the individual charges.[1] As it is now, we strain at the small increases in "direct labour costs" while swallowing the "overhead" camels.

*(f)—The introduction of technological changes*

To a certain extent I have covered this problem already. It is, however, rather a special problem on its own and deserves special consideration by managers who are concerned with full employment.

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[1] In a medium to large company the national "overheads" (such as income tax) paid out may amount to 20 per cent of the internal overheads.

There was, I believe, far too much tendency in certain industries to introduce "something new." It is very difficult to preserve a sense of balance on this matter, but taking as an example the radio industry, the spectacle of large companies adopting what almost seemed panic measures to out-advertise each other on some new feature every few months was not, in my view, sound management. I remember visiting one well-known works and hearing the caustic views of production engineers on the scrapping of expensive tooling, the temporary dislocation of lay-out and employment because a competitor, in this case quite a small one, had brought out a new feature. One word from the sales manager and the effort of months scrapped. The new feature might have sold a few more, but, carefully weighed against the "overhead" losses, one wonders whether it was worth-while.

There is a great responsibility on those who have to decide between the claims of the designers, the salesmen, and the overall prosperity of the company. I would suggest that, as managers, we might give greater consideration to this problem in future and bear more in mind some of the indirect losses arising from change before deciding. There are some practical ways in which we can assist right thinking:

1. Increasing the period between the various national exhibitions. For instance, the Motor Show was extended from yearly to alternate years just before the war, thus giving relief to nearly all manufacturers who (and I know this from personal experience) previously had barely finished with one show before having to get out something new for the next, just because "they couldn't afford to be left behind."

2. The greater standardization of many "common" components or sub-assemblies. Far too many designers ignore the standards laid down for those common items which find their way into so many of our national products. I have heard during the war of numerous cases where one designer called for common items like bolts 1-16 in. longer than those made by the sub-contractor for another firm doing the same job. I realize that one can go too far

towards standardization and produce stagnation, but I don't believe we have reached reasonable limits yet. My own company has done a great deal during war years to standardize certain items and has achieved a high degree of inter-changeability among its various products, and a flexibility and efficiency of production owing to the larger number of common items produced, Important also is an ability to produce special requirements very quickly, by utilizing other "combinations."

3. Following on (2) the possibilities of "unit" production are great. By this I mean a more conscious endeavour to design "units of assembly" which, while complete in themselves, can, by various combinations, provide a reasonably wide range for the sales side. The motor-car is a simple example where such units as engine, carburettor, gearbox, distributor, steering-box, etc., are commonplace. Here are some of the advantages:

(a) Gives customers a reasonable range of finished products through the possibility of various combinations.

(b) Enables designers to concentrate more on the efficiency of each unit in comparison with similar units produced by others.

(c) Directs their thoughts towards standardization.

(d) A policy of modifying one unit per period would enable tooling and lay-out programmes to be spread, with less possibility of major upheavals internally.

(e) Gives producers greater quantities of common items to produce, with greater efficiency, because fewer units are changed at one time.

It may be felt that I am "drawing a long bow" when I bring some of these technical problems within a discussion on full employment. I don't think so. The facts surely are that serious unemployment *was* a fact before the war; was a social crime. Leaving its solution wholly to the politicians seems to me to be unfair and unwise. Let us as industrial managers, leave no way untrodden in our efforts to find a solution, because solution there must be. Its continued achievement will represent the highest peak of managerial ability.

One final word on "full employment." There are some who think that full employment tends to make a

man effete; things are too easy for him and he loses his initiative. Well, I don't believe in making it too easy for anybody, but having seen the results of long unemployment I cannot believe that anything could be more demoralizing to the individual, and through him, the community.

## THE SOCIAL SERVICES OF THE INDUSTRIAL COMPANY

In a chapter devoted to the social responsibilities of the manager it is fitting that there should be some discussion on the implications behind various trends which have become particularly noticeable during the war. I refer to the taking on by the company of activities which, in other times, were regarded more as communal or State functions. Let us list some of them:

1. Financial Services:
   National Health Insurance contributions.*
   Unemployment Insurance contributions.*
   Income Tax deductions.*
   "Pay as you Earn" deductions.
2. Personnel Services:
   Medical services.
   Holidays with pay.*
   Sickness club.
   Pension plan.
   Social and Sports Club.
   Welfare of employees outside the factory.
   County Colleges.*
   Canteens.*
3. Special Services*
   Collections for charities.
   National Savings and other campaigns.
   Political meetings.
   Raising the standard of the neighbourhood.

Some of these, particularly in Group 1, are obligations on all firms; others depend on the willingness of the management to take on responsibilities which they might well say are outside their normal industrial scope. What

principle should be our guide? Let us see the factors which are involved:

## WHICH SERVICES ARE REALLY NECESSARY, WHO-EVER PERFORMS THEM?

The compulsory ones are starred. They are part of our normal social pattern, sponsored by State legislation. I would like to refer to two only of these, viz. County Colleges and Canteens.

*County Colleges.* These are envisaged as part of the Government's post-war education plan. Recent events lead me to the conclusion that the shortage of teachers, and accommodation, among other things, will put off their wide-scale adoption by the State for some years. Consequently we in industry have a real opportunity to help the scheme forward by our own action, that is if we believe in the idea behind these C.C. I will refer to them and their value in Chapter 11.

Let us, therefore, set up our own educational schemes, in collaboration with local educationists, and get in on the ground floor. By this means we give a stimulus to the trend and speed up the supply of teachers to a far greater extent than would be the case if we relied on the Government alone. My experience is that as we have to set up a training department anyway it is relatively easy to take over logically the activities envisaged by C.C.

*Canteens.* It was stated recently[1] that the number of industrial canteens had grown from less than 2,000 before the war to 16,400 in December, 1943. I presume this was encouraged by the Factories (Canteens) Order, which provided that any factory employing over 250 people must supply hot meals. I hope this will be a permanent feature as this, in my view, is a real service to the employee and through him, the company's efficiency. The cost varies; I think greater satisfaction comes from catering being performed by the company itself, and the cost per head per week to the company seems to average about 1*s*. 6*d*. in a reasonable sized unit.

[1] Minister of Food, March, 1944.

Dealing now with the other starred services, industry has performed a number of them over many years and as the financial burden must fall on every firm there is no unfair discrimination. It is more efficient for the Government to arrange financial collections involving individuals through the firms employing those individuals, rather than setting up arrangements outside the working sphere, as the firm is a very convenient unit.

The case for the company handling compulsory State-sponsored schemes applied to individuals is fairly easy to make. How far, however, should the company go outside this compulsory sphere, and deal with activities such as those unstarred on the list? Let us briefly examine each one.

*Medical Services.* There are some medical obligations on every company, such as the compulsory examination of juveniles, and those working on certain chemicals. Outside this, however, the company can, if it wishes, get away with the minimum Factory Act requirements of first-aid boxes and possibly nursing staff. More managers are now realizing that these minimum requirements could be augmented with advantage, and it is becoming standard practice with larger companies to appoint medical officers whose duties cover not only the routine examination of all who seek employment, so that a minimum standard of health is sought, but assistance in creating conditions in the company which will promote health, and also fitting more accurately into the right job those who may not reach normality in one health way or another. How far should this trend go? The first question might be: "Is it a business investment?" Well, the cost is really relatively small, and taking a company employing about 1,000 employees as a standard I estimate that the additional cost per year per employee of having a part-time medical adviser who can deal reasonably well with all concerned is about 11*s.*, or less than 0·3 per cent. of the wages bill. For this you get numerous advantages, such as:

    (*a*) A minimum standard of health for all entering employment.

(b) A minimum standard of cleanliness for all entering employment (in one factory we started during the war 80 per cent of all applicants were "dirty" until they came to know our examination and standards).

(c) A reasonable after-illness "re-starting" standard fixed by actual factory requirements. (Many local doctors do not know industrial conditions.)

(d) A confidence among pregnant women in the company that they can work as long as possible, owing to the constant medical interest taken in them at their workplace.

(e) A prompt, "easily-got-at" treatment prescribed and administered, which in many cases avoids the worker later having time off to the detriment of the absentee records, the production target and the workers' income.

(f) A spread among medical doctors of industrial conditions, which tends to avoid frequent complaints made by those in industry on the lack of care taken by doctors in making out "certificates."

(g) Expert assistance on problems of lay-out, working conditions, the launching of special health campaigns, etc.

(h) The greater utilization of sub-normal people like the blind and the halt. This is a real social service, and is one calling for greater medical knowledge of industrial possibilities.

Are there any who would say that these are not worth less than 0·3 per cent. of the wages bill? It is important, however, that we do not overstep logical progress. The company's medical staff, part- or full-time, should not cut across the outside doctor. The worker should be advised to see his own doctor promptly where necessary, and apart from this expert guidance, the internal checking occasionally necessary, and simple, quick treatment and advice on colds and such ailments, I think further medical responsibilities should be the responsibility of the State or private doctors.

Some companies have gone so far as to set up complete surgeries where teeth may be extracted and dentures fitted. Worth-while perhaps where the works are located in the wilderness, but where there are reasonable outside

facilities available I think they should be used, and the internal facilities restricted to cover the activities discussed previously.

The small firm can install a reasonable medical service on a part-time basis just as well as the large firm where, owing to shift conditions, etc., full-time doctors are justified. One interesting experiment was reported recently[1] where a number of small industrial "units" combined to form a medical centre on the estate which gave a much more comprehensive service than would have been possible by any one firm. This, indeed, is a way by which not only the special internal requirements of each factory could be satisfied, but also—in co-operation with the doctors and State—the "community" aspect of health could be bettered.

The Government has recently issued a white paper on Medical Services[2] in which reference is made, *inter alia*, to the setting up of health centres, having first-class local facilities for a fairly comprehensive medical service. These are assumed to be provided by County Councils and a suggestion is made that local doctors can run their private practices and also do part-time work in the centres.

This follows closely a similar set-up in Soviet Russia, and seems to be a first-class way of bringing comprehensive facilities down to "local" availability.

The industrial firms will no doubt work closely in touch with these centres and possibly may have an understanding which will, on payment of a fee, make available these health centre facilities as an alternative to setting up comprehensive arrangements internally. It is doubtful whether the large companies will diminish their present medical arrangements, but local schemes of the nature suggested cannot fail to be helpful to industrial managers and their health advisers, particularly in the small factories.

Before leaving this section there is one very important aspect of industrial medical service I wish to comment upon. Industry has played a leading part in providing

[1] Management Research Groups' Bulletin, 28th January, 1944.
[2] *National Health Service* (H.M.S.O., February, 1944).

first-class health services to its members, with other sections of the community, such as commerce and general "office" establishments, relatively behind. This may tend to create in the minds of the average individual a feeling that there must be something wrong with industry if it has to do so much in extra health facilities and run anti-T.B. campaigns, etc. Actually, many of the diseases, ill-nesses, and mal-adjustments being tackled by industry. are *not* industrial in their origin, but social, with social responsibilities for alleviation. I admit that the factory is a convenient unit for study by a social worker, but if in the end it means that young people are being directed away from factories because the parents have a notion that we in them are always finding it necessary to have a campaign on this or that aspect of health, then it's time we stopped to think, and to ask whether greater attention should not be paid by social workers to other spheres of employment where, believe me, there is ample room for improvement.

REHABILITATION INTERNALLY

In the last section I referred to the greater utilization of sub-normal people. Now this is a first-class social problem, and one that has been largely ignored by all except a few enlightened societies and companies. What can be done by real pressure of circumstances has been shown by Mr. Bevin recently[1] when he said that out of a previous total of 185,000 "unemployables," as the result of special investigations this figure was ultimately reduced to 18,000. A colleague of mine sat on one of the committees set up to examine this problem and his answer to the question "How did you do it?" was that "We took a little trouble to find suitable jobs for them." Quite a proportion had been disabled at work and the cynic might say that "industry broke them down, therefore industry should pick them up."

I was shown an internal memo recently (Appendix C) which gives some idea of this problem. It is humorous in parts, but back of it lies a tragic condition which has taken

[1] Hansard, 27th January, 1944. Cols. 930-1.

a war, with its terrific shortage of labour in our factories, even to consider, let alone in most cases use effectively, these former misfits.

Add to this the inevitable large number of war-damaged Service and other personnel and you will appreciate that, although we may be obliged by a "King's Roll" to take a certain percentage of ex-Service men, we have a real responsibility to take *more than our share* of all those in this sub-normal category.

What are the special considerations to bear in mind if we accept this responsibility?

(*a*) Make your attitude known to the various welfare societies and the local Ministry of Labour.

(*b*) Survey the various jobs in your own company which call for the use of a limited number of "senses."

(*c*) Endeavour to group enough of these jobs together so that a special section, however small, can be set up, staffed entirely by the sub-normals. (I believe this is better than a spread throughout the whole place, when the weaker would tend to go to the wall.) I need not add that those who are able to do so without difficulty should be engaged in a normal capacity and job. It is only when they require special consideration that they should be treated specially.

(*d*) Appoint, even if only as part of his duties, someone who will devote special attention to the full utilization of the group. This individual should have a good knowledge of motion study principles in addition to his generally sympathetic outlook towards this problem.

(*e*) Then treat them as normal persons just as much as you can, subject to the small concessions such as starting a little later and leaving a little earlier, to avoid crowding. Some will say that keeping them together in segregation emphasizes rather than minimizes their handicaps. I don't agree, as I have found so often that there is really not the sympathetic attitude among those supervisors controlling normal departments. Keeping them together under a specialist control enables a greater utilization of their limited senses to take place and *if, as a group, they know they are paying their way*, this is the finest tonic and self-satisfaction of all to them. To the company is

provided justification, financial and social, for its initiative.

## REHABILITATION EXTERNALLY

A number of rehabilitation centres[1] have been set up in recent years to enable those recovering from illness or accident to adjust themselves more accurately to a renewed working life. I cannot at the moment give an accurate assessment of their value except in the mining industry and of course the Services. There seems no reason, however, why the advantages should not be extended to industry in general and I believe every company should actively support the movement by giving a donation to the most appropriate centre in its part of the country. Many companies have responded generously without thought of individual company gain. I am much impressed by the emphasis laid on handicraft work, including various out-of-door activities, and when enough experience has been gained the opportunity to fit the maladjusted to a more appropriate working life will be much greater, although the prime responsibility in this vocational guidance must obviously rest with the company. The best rehabilitation is to avoid the necessity for it.

## SICKNESS CLUBS

Some companies allow facilities for a sickness club to be run by the workpeople—a minority have a comprehensive plan covering allowances to all grades during sickness, and not only staff members. Here again a small company expenditure is required, as it usually pays the running costs and often makes a yearly donation to the funds.

I have found that these clubs are worth-while to the manager himself, from the point of view of giving him or his associates on the committee an opportunity of meeting the workers' representatives and hearing various first-hand

[1] For details of schemes in actual operation appropriate bodies like St. Dunstan's or The Industrial Welfare Society should be consulted. See also a booklet *Blind Workers in Industry*, by Dr. K. G. Fenelon.

comments on working conditions or sick employees that make them all the better managers. I well remember a rather violent shop steward say that his contacts with "management" on the sickness club had altered his opinion greatly. I added that management had also altered its opinion of him. All this first-hand contact by managers, together with committee work (with executive authority) by workpeople is cheap at the very nominal cost of running such a scheme.

### PENSION PLANS

These at present are confined mainly to the "staff"— i.e. weekly or monthly paid. They are usually handled by the company on behalf of an insurance company, with possibly the company making a joint contribution with the employee. In my experience they are sometimes regarded with suspicion by those who feel that joining such a plan "ties you down too much and enables the company to take advantage of your immobility." I have known a few such cases and I am not too sure whether a pension plan should be an "inside" activity or one run by the State for all, with opportunity for each person to pay *additional* premiums to the limit of his fancy and resources, either to the State scheme or to one or other insurance company.

There is no doubt, however, that the deduction of premiums through the wage-packet is the best means of "compulsory" saving and on this principle it is similar to income tax deductions, which include post-war "credits." It also enables the company to make a voluntary payment on behalf of each employee should it feel justified. Once again, however, it costs just that little extra to administer and deserves a place in any discussion on the social services of an industrial unit. It has, also, a certain value as a "stabilizer" of employment, which is advantageous.

### SOCIAL AND SPORTS CLUB

"Many are catered for, but few turn up" is the un-written motto of most social clubs attached to companies

I once conducted an analysis of the actual position in a company where the club was fairly active and found that less than 10 per cent of all employees normally used its facilities. The overall cost was about 6*s*. per year per employee in the company, which meant *that those using the facilities* had about £3 per year expended on them. (These figures are exclusive of the costs met by employee deductions and represent additional company cost only.)

Is it worth-while for 10 per cent of the total employees? I think so. From the employee point of view this group probably represents far more than 10 per cent of those who are really in need of "off-hour" activities. I refer to the young people who may wish to hold dances, do handicraft work, etc., in suitable communal surroundings not easily found in the community; to those men and women away from home who are glad to have an alternative to an evening at the "digs." Once again, however, I feel that if a group of companies could sponsor a recreation centre in a central position it would help the "social" outlook of those using the facilities and the companies who helped to sponsor them. Several such centres were set up during the war, sponsored by the Ministry of Labour, with donations from local firms.

It is very difficult for managers of all grades to attend the many social activities in a reasonably sized company. I believe one good way is for the company to sponsor a first-class dance/social about four times a year, leaving the normal social-club activities to small groups dealing with special interests. These major affairs could afford opportunity for the majority of managers and their wives to meet and mix with each other, and with other works personnel. It might be a good idea to let each main department in turn organize the affair, with, however, the "company" aspect always remembered. The cost could probably be shared 50–50 and a company expenditure of about 10*s*. per year, or about 0·125 per cent per person employed, would cover an activity which would, in its opportunity for reasonable social contacts over all personnel,

be much better than a similar amount of money spent on a series of minor efforts.

Just recently I have had a spate of first-hand experience in this "social" activity. At Christmas-time I asked for a list of those who had been away a long time, and, writing to one old member of the company, received a reply, more in sorrow than in anger, that I was the first in the company to either write or call on him in eighteen months. What an indictment—and more common than we imagine, as subsequent investigation showed. What is the remedy? One simple one is a monthly list, sent from personnel department to supervisors and managers, of those who have been away more than, say, four weeks. This at least draws them to one's attention and I am convinced that that alone is important in these days of internal stress.

We really need a little humanizing, and if one looks only from the cost angle (and who does) the return in goodwill is ample compensation. The feeling of social satisfaction these little services give to the donors is considerable; the individual encouragement to those in trouble is very great. There are numerous small ways of assistance, such as:

(*a*) Visits to hospital or home by supervisors, friends, or sick visitors.
(*b*) Writing letters occasionally.
(*c*) Putting these temporary invalids on circulation list of company publications.
(*d*) Occasional financial help, money, "kind," or services.
(*e*) Giving wife a job, or special facilities to help husband laid up.

A company can deal with these matters formally and informally. Formally it may make a regular contribution to an employee distress fund, allowing the employee committee to adjudicate on *individual* cases. Informally through the little extra which should always receive the special consideration of the manager, quite apart from formal routine. Its a good experience for a manager to

visit a home or hospital, where he learns again the truth that "it is better to give than to receive." The cost in a company, of say 1,000 is unlikely to be more than about £500 per year, or about 0·3 per cent of the wage bill, and for the experience, the goodwill, and the personal help, its darned cheap to "unpack one's heart with action" in this way.

## COLLECTIONS FOR CHARITIES

In my own company we allow the shop stewards facilities for a charitable collection once every two months. The charity is approved by the joint committee and the organization is undertaken by the stewards outside hours, although one person in each department may collect during hours. It helps a good charity, it gives the stewards a chance to organize something, and everybody get a little satisfaction from seeing the amount acknowledged in some way or another later on. I cannot see any objection to this voluntary social activity within industry providing the occasions are not too frequent. The very minor cost is hardly worth considering.

## NATIONAL SAVINGS AND OTHER CAMPAIGNS

There are various sorts of campaigns, national and local. The savings drives during the war, the campaigns against illness, scrap, fuel wastage, are examples, and providing they are not more frequent than about once every four months are, I believe, tonics for all personnel. Those who perform repetition work, day or night, month by month, can do with and cherish memories of "high spots," and these campaigns can be "high spots" which, although not necessarily connected with production, *revitalize* the people, just as occasional impulses keep a piece of mechanism constantly in motion.

There are few people in a company who do not get a "kick" out of seeing their own company near the top of a list of subscribers to one cause or another, or to be told by some authoritative outsider what a good job they have recently done. These are the occasions when so many

ordinary people in a company can come into their own—savings collectors, fuel watchers, blood donors, etc., and anything which will do this is good from all points of view.

Some campaigns are, of course, directly beneficial to the company, and these should be kept to a minimum unless the company is willing to consider sharing the financial benefits with those who helped produce the results. There are some campaigns which have real "social" value, and as an example quote an experiment in mass radiography for detecting T.B. which, at the request of the Medical Research Council, we sponsored. Over 90 per cent of all personnel took part, and a valuable "social" job was done which enabled statistics to be gathered and experience gained, quite apart from the satisfaction given to the many people who participated. Fortunately, few cases were uncovered, and most of these were found in time to do something about them. How many of the 90 per cent who participated would have gone for an X-ray if it had not been made available within the factory? Very few, I suspect, and unless legislation forces us towards preventative measures in our community there is no doubt that an "industrial" campaign of this sort is a sound social scheme and, at reasonable intervals, represents an intangible investment with a tangible return.

## POLITICAL MEETINGS

There has developed in recent years a greater tendency among "organized" personnel in industry towards "political" expression, expressed publicly on behalf of "the workers in the factory."

You remember seeing resolutions passed by "the workers of . . . . Ltd." calling upon the Government, or some other authority, to do something, whether relieving famine in India, sticking Mosley back in gaol again, or suppressing some group not to their liking. You probably found your absentee stewards combining with other "dittos" outside Parliament and purporting to represent everybody in the company in their statements.

In several cases mass meetings of workpeople were called within works by shop stewards (with grudging managerial approval) in order to discuss, not company business but "political" issues. How far should this trend go?

Every man is entitled in our democracy to an expression of opinion, and *as a citizen* has full opportunity to write to or speak anything and anywhere, from his daily paper to Hyde Park. Inside the confines of his job (even within, the Shop Stewards' Committee) is it not wiser to encourage a concentration on those problems affecting the *company*, of which he is an integral working part? If I wish to express a view on India I have ample opportunity as "W. P.—citizen" to do so, but as "W. P.—member of my company" I should devote my energies to its particular welfare, guided naturally by my general outlook as a citizen, which can be expressed through the various social angles discussed in this chapter. I can contribute to an inside collection for Indian women but that doesn't make it desirable for me to authorize a mass meeting on it within the company's precincts. Most of you will agree that the examples of "social" activities inside the works which I have discussed in this chapter are *independent of class, creed or political faith*. I think we should, *in industry*, confine our "social" activities to this field which, superimposed on a sound "industrial pride" will provide for most of us a pretty full working life!

## RAISING THE STANDARD OF THE NEIGHBOURHOOD

Are we good neighbours? Do we, as managers, always realize that as large ratepayers in the locality we have a high responsibility for ensuring that the factory takes its full share of local activities and is as "neighbourly" as the private citizens who live around it? One of my first experiences in a certain locality was to investigate an alleged nuisance of noise committed by the factory, and it was impressed on me that it is not enough to say that "we are industry and you must put up with our noise, our smells, our excrescences." No private householder would for long put up with bad conditions created by another

private householder, and we can do much more than any one householder to make or mar a community of many people.

Many signs show that enlightened managers are becoming more numerous. The external appearance of many of our modern factories is proof of this outlook, although too often the aesthetic improvement is confined to a mere façade. Nevertheless, it is a step forward. How often is it realized what an uplifting effect good surroundings have on people? Go into a tidy room and you keep it tidy; work in a modern factory and you smarten yourself up accordingly. In one factory which was started during the war in a rather dowdy district a very real attempt was made by enlightened management to create clean, tidy, efficient conditions. It was the custom among most local girls to keep their hair in curlers all day, ready, I presume, for the evening "date." It was the custom of most men to come to work collarless. In a short time curlers disappeared and collars appeared!

Now, I'm not suggesting that curlers and collars mean all that much, but I do believe that the clean, tidy conditions created in that factory made for efficiency; they created also a feeling that personalities could be tidied up to match, and that, I believe, is one stage towards a better, more responsible attitude towards social living conditions. People who contrast the factory conditions favourably against home conditions are more likely to do something to raise themselves to a better social level, to broaden their outlook, to become better citizens and so, full circle, to carry these further improvements forward into their work, and so give recompense, if more be needed, to those managers who take the lead.

There are at least two ways by which bad housing conditions can be improved: (1) by tackling it on its own in the social field, and (2) by creating a pride in the working environment which will give impetus, *through the people*, to a demand for home conditions to match. Here are a few positive suggestions which can be borne in mind by managers, even of existing factories in shoddy localities:

# THE TRAINING AND SELECTION OF MANAGERS

*There are two kinds of guys—bright-eyed and dull-eyed. You can teach the bright-eyed anything, no matter where they come from.*
EUGENE TRIULZE.

*Then hear thou . . . that thou teach them the good way wherein they should walk.*
KINGS viii, 36.

*And Moses chose able men out of all Israel and made them heads above the people, rulers of thousands, rulers of hundreds, rulers of fifties, rulers of tens.*
EXODUS xviii, 25.

MY problem right at the beginning of this chapter was to decide whether the chicken or the egg came first! To be more precise, whether "training" precedes "selection" or vice versa. I chose training first because, generally speaking, the better the pool the better the fish you get from it.

Now, the word "training" itself requires some analysis. There has, during the war years, been a tremendous emphasis on training, which has usually been taken to mean a short course designed to convert the raw material represented by millions of trainees into semi-finished material capable of performing limited but exceedingly useful work on machine, bench or desk. I want to suggest that we should give the term "training" a wider significance in industry, even at the risk of confining the term "education" to a more specific field. At present the word "education" covers primary, secondary, technical, and university courses. It covers full-time and part-time, whether day or evening classes, in school and factory. It is often used to describe industrial training.

## THE SCOPE OF EDUCATION

Education conjures up the vision of a process through which all young persons must pass to enable them to start their specific vocational activities at an appropriate age. A process that includes the basic requirements of the three R's, the first approach to character-building, the opening of doors to the wider horizons beyond. *Vocational*

training in the educational schools (except in the vital sense of handicraft work and possibly visits to factories, etc.) is not usually attempted in this period (and wisely so).

The pupil, after this basic educational period, which we will call period 1, whether it be completed at 14, 15 or 18, is naturally not fully educated. That never happens. If he is destined for the industrial sphere, he is then ready to take his small part in the working activities of that section of the community, so that he may grow to industrial stature and take his full share of responsibilities.

### THE SCOPE OF TRAINING

After leaving full-time school his education should become rather more specialized, and can more correctly be named "training." Now, some people use the word "training" in a very narrow sense, such as the war-time one recently mentioned. I prefer the wider definition where even "education" may be alternatively described as "training to live." When a young fellow enters industry I believe our attitude to him should be that we will train him towards "public spirit through industrial pride." Here, briefly, is my idea of the full scope of training after completion of period 1:

*Period 2—Technical Training*
- (*a*) Fundamental training in the practical aspects of his industrial choice up to the limit of his abilities.
- (*b*) Opportunity to find the right work in which to utilize his particular aptitudes and characteristics.
- (*c*) Opportunity to appreciate the position of industry in the community and his own responsibilities towards achieving "public spirit through industrial pride."
- (*d*) Opportunity to study the theoretical aspects of his industrial choice up to the limit of his abilities.

*Period 3—Managerial Training*
- (*a*) Opportunity to expand his special abilities and characteristics towards an appreciation of "organizational" principles, with special emphasis on the importance of personnel problems.
- (*b*) Opportunity to exercise and develop his "personal"

qualities in the technical, organizational and social spheres.

These steps are roughly in order of ascent from industrial entrant to the highest managerial post. Let us see if we can express a typical industrial training programme in the form of a diagram. Consider Fig. 1, below. This is rather diagrammatic and I realize that the training programmes within each period (particularly No. 2), and their age ranges, are approximate only. It does, however, represent a reasonable foundation upon which to build up my views on the training and selection of managers, which after all is the purpose of this chapter.
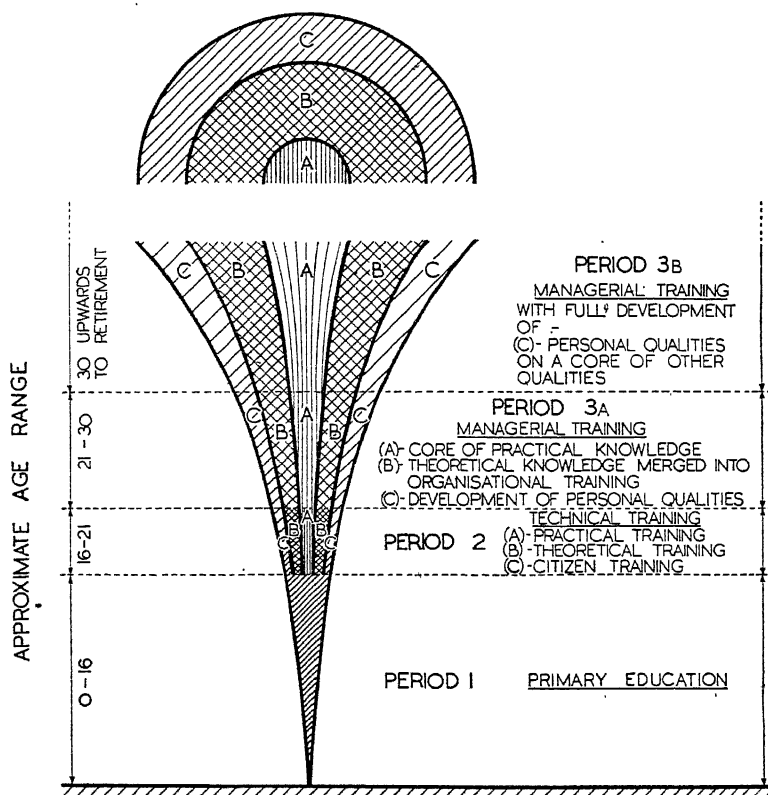


Fig. 1. The development of a Manager

A brief explanation of this diagram is necessary. It endeavours to illustrate the following requirements:

(a) An approximate idea of the various educational and training periods of a manager.

(b) An approximate idea of how training for, and expansion of, the various qualities of the manager are covered.

(c) The gradual expansion of responsibilities with layers of organizational and personal requirements clothing the core of practical knowledge, the area of each annulus indicating the relative requirements at each stage.

(d) The continuous expansion of the personal qualities, from primary education, through the "County College" activity in period 2 into the full development of personality in period 3.

*Period 1—Primary Education*

I have no special qualifications to talk about basic education, except that I was a boy once. When I give vent to strong language after looking over the entrance exam. results of juveniles attempting to join my own company I am reminded by teaching friends that "what more can you expect when classes are nearer 50 than 20; when all the best boys are sent anywhere but into the factories; when few parents take any intelligent interest in their children, and when school teachers are fast becoming drudges, with children's lunches and other such semi-parental responsibilities taking up more and more teachers' time at the expense of legitimate education."

I cannot argue with them when I compare, for instance, the salaries of teachers in relation to many less trained people; when I compare the total amount spent on elementary and higher education prior to the war (less than one hundred million pounds) with the £15,000,000-odd per *day* spent on making war. Is there any guarantee that the expenditure of more than six or seven days' "war cost" on education after the war will be repaid in avoiding, or putting off, future wars? I think such an investment is as good as most, certainly more positive than some of the other "social security" measures advocated, if considered on a long-term basis.

The expenditure of money alone will not, however, guarantee better material for industry or the community.

To make specific proposals I would lay stress on the following points, which, if carried out, might help to bring out more fully the latent possibilities of the coming generations. These proposals are based on this principle:

"That the full development of a boy into a useful citizen depends primarily on three factors:

    (1) His home influence.
    (2) His functional centi e.
    (3) His country.

Like a three-legged stool, each factor should be present in reasonable degree to achieve full stability.

(1) *His home influence.* Many parents are neglecting their duties to their children. I do not view the continuation of school meals, nurseries, youth organizations and such-like with favour if they mean more than a nominal avoidance by the parents of their proper responsibilities. A happy home is a tremendous source of strength to a child.

(2) *His functional centre.* This may be his school or his factory. Whatever the centre may be, the attitude of the boy to it (and it to him) is very important. He should be proud of his centre and the centre should respond by endeavouring to build and preserve a corporate, co-operative spirit in each member. There are plenty of ways in which this can be done, whether in school or factory.

(3) *His country.* The public spirit of good citizenship can be built up more readily through his pride in his centre (2). There are few real citizens who are attached to country only without also having basic loyalties to other fundamental things.

Now let us take these basic factors and break them down into specific requirements which might achieve the purpose of period 1: primary education:

    (*a*) Smaller classes and greater *individual* guidance and good leadership by teachers.
    (*b*) Fullest use of handicraft subjects with very special regard to the aptitude of each boy.

(c) Widening the outlook of students and teachers by organized visits to factories, institutions, public works, etc.; "abilities develop out of interests."

(d) Greater training in the writing of essays, reports and compositions which would develop the imaginative and analytical outlook. Most boys can express themselves verbally very well, but fail lamentably at deeper thinking, which is stimulated by "writing it down."

(e) Develop to the full an individual responsibility for carry, ing out various specific duties that should be assigned to the boys as frequently as possible.

(f) Increase status, salaries and experience of teachers. Encourage, by organized means, greater practical collaboration between teachers and industrial managers. The latter can often assist by acting as guest lecturers on semi-technical subjects.

(g) Last, but not least, encourage greater interest by parents in developing their children, not only in the seventeen hours a day the children are away from school, but in the school life also. Teachers may say they resent interference in school by parents, but they cannot have it both ways by complaining of lack of parental guidance at the same time. I think greater opportunities for parents to maintain an interest in the children at school is worth encouraging. "To understand is to appreciate."

You may ask why I have, in a chapter devoted to training managers, gone as far back as period 1. My answer is clear: the better the products of the schools the better the entrants to industry. The finished products of schools are our raw material, and you know as well as I do that it always pays to get together with your suppliers of raw materials so that you have more confidence in your "goods inwards" department. Even if only the same small percentage of industrial entrants are able to find room on the managerial ladder, surely, nationally, we should benefit if the *average* quality of manpower is raised. The higher the base the higher the peak.

Suppose we consider the financial aspect of this. The approximate value per year of the products of industry alone in Great Britain, round about 1935–6, was

£3,500,000,000, which on to-day's value, would represent say, £5,000,000,000. The Board of Education, in its recent White Paper,[1] estimates an ultimate additional yearly expenditure on education of approximately £50,000,000, this to apply when all the period 1 improvements envisaged in the plan are in operation.

Disregarding all "social" improvements arising out of this expenditure we must, on a strict financial basis, get our £50,000,000 per year back, This would be achieved by an increase of less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in national efficiency. Do we think we can improve the overall "value" of our industrial entrants by this percentage in return for the expenditure quoted? I think there is a good chance on a financial basis alone.

Before leaving period 1, I want to comment more fully on my recent statement that the products of the schools represent the raw material of industry, and consequently the better the raw material, the better the rank and file (and therefore the managers of industry) will be.

Can you, by primary education (period 1) bring out more than there is inside a person? Obviously not, but must we assume that at the moment we bring out all the inherent qualities that are lying dormant? If you believe that we do, you need not read any more—I think you are beyond my "span of approach." If, however, you believe (as I do) in "the infinite capacity of man" and his latent capabilities, you will agree that there is much to do, and much to gain, socially and industrially, by the attempt.

There are three factors of special significance which have helped to form my views in this direction:

(a) "The survival of the non-fittest."
(b) The advance in our "average age."
(c) The results of war-time training.

## (a) "THE SURVIVAL OF THE NON-FITTEST"

Until a few decades ago the chances were that, in childhood particularly, only the "fittest" tended to survive, the others went under. This probably tended towards a

[1] *Educational Reconstruction*, July, 1943.

greater average virility and (possibly) a relatively greater number of potential leaders or managers in our population. This is difficult to prove, but is suggested.

To-day, with modern medicine and sanitation, the death-rate has been reduced considerably and the "average" quality of those kept alive may be reduced, at least in the "leader" sense. This may be highly controversial, as some might say that the pre-natal and childhood advances made have not altered the survival possibilities of the "fittest" but have increased the average "quality" of the remainder also. It is perhaps hard to prove, one way or another, but I believe that in future it may be more difficult to find "leaders among equals." At least this way of thinking means that one is likely to do more about finding and training those leaders.

## (b) THE ADVANCE IN OUR "AVERAGE AGE"

For the next decade or so nothing can alter the fact that our population will contain a higher percentage of elderly people and a lower percentage of juveniles. This impending scarcity of juveniles imposes on us a solemn duty to improve those available, as producers, as potential managers and citizens, to the highest degree. The man with only one eye will take more care of it; let us see we take more care in educating our smaller number of young people.

## (c) THE RESULTS OF WAR-TIME TRAINING

Those who have been associated with industry over the recent war years know well how the "short term" training plans put into effect in a large number of factories in this and other countries, particularly U.S.A.[1] have repaid themselves many times over on a financial basis alone, quite apart from the many other benefits, such as the great increase in war production and the personal satisfaction given to those trained to do a useful job. We have learned, as never before, how *properly organized*

[1] I refer particularly to T.W.I. (Training Within Industry), promoted by the U.S. Government. We have also much to learn from the Services.

training can turn a very raw beginner into something useful to country and self in a very short time. We have learned that the adaptability of all but a few is much greater than we thought, The secret is properly organized training, and if only the lessons industry alone has learned recently are not forgotten by those in it, and the best and most appropriate methods used *are studied also by the educationists* (and there is much to learn, although the sphere is slightly, different) then I think that our war-time training experience alone will convince those who doubt the possibility of getting from the schools any better raw material for industry.

Well, there are three significant factors which are worth serious consideration by all who are concerned with the possible management vacancies in their own companies during the next decade or so. Just as "it is never too late to mend," when you are a manager, so perhaps "it is never too early to learn" when applied to our future managers.

*Period* 2—TECHNICAL TRAINING

First of all, remember my definition of "technical" on page 73. *It includes both practical and theoretical training.*

Now, period 2 is a vital one to the industrialist. To us comes the boy in his middle teens; he is likely to remain within our sphere, for better or worse, during the rest of his working life. His progress during the next four or five years, in the direction of becoming a useful member of the industrial and the social community, probably rests more in our hands than any others, including his own and his parents'. It is a rather solemn thought, and puts us in the right frame of mind (I hope) to discuss our responsibilities.

What are those responsibilities? I listed them on page 195 and think we might well now discuss them in greater detail:

(*a*) FUNDAMENTAL TRAINING IN THE PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF HIS INDUSTRIAL CHOICE, UP TO THE LIMIT OF HIS ABILITIES

There are three significant sub-sections of (*a*):

1. Fundamental training.
2. Practical aspects.
3. Choice.

## 1. *Fundamental training*

I shall not be popular when I say that 90 per cent of our present industrial workers received little fundamental training—they just "picked it up." I was apprenticed to a firm of high repute, and, looking back, must admit that my own training was more like a hen's progress around the farmyard, picking up odd bits, rather than having access to a well-balanced, regular meal.

Fundamental training implies starting from the beginning and completing a proper course. It implies a regular *planned* movement of each youth being trained from one job to another. It implies a careful record of each boy's performance and possibilities, kept by someone whose special responsibility it is. I will discuss this in greater detail later.

## 2. *Practical Aspect*

My remarks in Chapter 5 (page 76) will have told you what I mean by "practical" work. *It is actually doing those industrial jobs as far down the scale as the industry's human activities extend.* In other words, starting on the factory floor (or its equivalent in other industries) on the elementary jobs and working systematically through these to the highest grade of practical skill the youngster is capable of developing.

I would not, if I had my way, let any boy start work straight from school, except in the "factory" atmosphere. I would stop the influx of boys as, say messengers or office boys. Every one should start on the elementary jobs in the practical work of the factory. The "office boy" jobs could be filled by girls, who are usually quicker at this sort of work and later gravitate more naturally to higher clerical work. Those parents who "don't like the idea of Jimmy going into a factory" could try to get him into one of the many commercial openings outside industry.

You may say "That's all right for factory workers and potential factory supervisors, but what about the requirements of industry's offices, such as cashiers, accountants and buyers?" My answer is that out of the boys who start from "industrial scratch" you will find a proportion who can later on be sorted out (by individual characteristics) into categories covering ALL the requirements of industry— technical, commercial and (later) managerial. I hope no one will deny that the cost accountant, the buyer, even the cashier (not only on wage query days) would benefit by a closer knowledge of the factory side of industry, which, at the moment, is sadly lacking among many of them. We have developed too many college-bred theorists who can talk but haven't "done." If you think my idea is impractical, remember that 87 per cent of the factories in this country employ less than 100 people, and in the smaller factories the manager or other factory supervisors usually cover costing, purchasing, and similar office activities in their stride, while remaining basically "technical." There is no reason why higher "commercial" knowledge and jobs cannot be grafted on to "practical" stock, just as the higher "technical" can. *These higher grade commercial and technical individuals are then both available for supervisory and managerial posts*, as covered by my period 3 (page 195). This would do much to break down the present barriers that so often exist between "office" and "factory."

While writing this chapter I have had my attention drawn to a statement by the head master of a public school. It covers my views so well that I include it here:

> Education has meant hitherto something which the scholarly boy did well and the unscholarly did badly. We have tended to forget the man who was educated through his trade. The tradesman who has served a full apprenticeship has often received an education as good in its way as anything that can be provided in any school. For it brings not only competence in a trade, but also the full development of those faculties that are of use for it, a sense of touch perhaps, and a sense of design, an exact appreciation of the quality of materials used,

a precise awareness of the results likely to follow from given methods; and with all this what might be called harmonizing of the personality, and the acquisition of a steadiness and balance of outlook which never comes unless many of our faculties are being called into play."[1]

### 3. *Choice*

Every opportunity should be taken by those responsible for our youngsters entering industry to fit accurately together their aptitudes and jobs. This is not always a matter of fitting "a square hole to a round peg, or vice versa." Many youths do not show special aptitudes until a few years after entering industry; others can be moulded to a wide variety of jobs. Some have a definite "one track" aptitude. *The important principle is to build up a boy's strong points, but definitely to avoid neglecting his weaknesses.* Many a boy has been made into a conceited prig, with a narrow outlook, by neglecting this last point. The trainers must strive to produce reasonably balanced individuals.

This search for special aptitudes and abilities, together with its accompanying special training, can only be successful if one organizes correctly. A set-up of trainers, records, follow-ups, such as previously mentioned, is needed for successful results.

SUMMARY OF PERIOD 2(*a*)

Fundamental practical training for every youth.

(*a*) Start all entrants to industry on the most elementary level of industry's "practical" work.

(*b*) Prepare plans covering effective training of each entrant up to the highest grade of practical work he is capable of doing.

(*c*) Appoint someone who, even if doing other work also, has special responsibility for training programme of company.

(*d*) Keep careful records of every youth, with particular reference to aptitudes and characteristics.

(*e*) Build up the strength of each youth, but don't neglect his

[1] Mr. Walter Oakeshoot, St. Paul's School.

weaknesses. The aim should be to produce individuals whose special aptitudes are built up on a reasonably balanced personality.

*Period 2 (b)* OPPORTUNITIES FOR YOUTHS TO FIND THE RIGHT WORK WHICH WILL UTILIZE FULLY THEIR PARTICULAR APTITUDES AND CHARACTERISTICS

I have partly covered this on page 205. There, however, it was under the heading "Choice," which was in itself one of the "breakdowns" of "fundamental practical training."

Here I want to deal with the problem in greater detail because I think it is of considerable importance.

Consider the diagram (Fig. 1) on page 196. Here I show the three periods 1, 2 and 3, into which I have divided our potential manager's educational and training span. First of all the educational climb of all students up the ladder of period 1, reaching the plateau from which some will attempt the industrial climb of period 2. From this plateau there are alternative climbs, *providing a choice* for all who know their own aptitudes or can have them made known by vocational guidance.

At the end of period 1 the youth reaches the first level of occupational choice, and in my view a great deal more can be done by parents, teachers, and scientific bodies, and those in industry, to see that as far as knowledge, experience and skill is available, every boy is fitted into the job for which he will be best suited. I do ask that the requirements and opportunities of industry are made better known to those who will guide the boys, otherwise the ladders of industry will be rather barren and the nation will suffer accordingly.

Now for the second stage of choice. Youths starting up the industrial ladder may reach the next level by a variety of ladders. They may go up via pattern-making, turning, milling, fitting, assembly, general processing, and so on. Each is a practical facet of the many-sided structure called industry.

What are the possibilities of the right choice of industrial ladder for a boy? Generally, very little. He is more likely to be put (even in the best of firms) into the first "boy" vacancy available and is lucky to be moved around on a rational basis afterwards. His practical training starts badly and remains so. He is likely to be used by his supervisors on a basis of "immediate value" rather than "ultimate value" and because the average boy is not (in his teens) particularly definite on his future, he is not likely to assist too much in his own destiny, at least at that age.

How can we improve the possibilities of setting a boy's feet on the right ladder when he enters industry, period 2? I have already referred to the vocational guidance which can be given at the end of period 1. It is doubtful whether more can be done at this stage than divide boys into fairly wide categories, such as "practical" and "theoretical" types, with relative grading in each category. The boy may himself express a preference for a certain type of job, or merely to work in a certain shop or factory. The parents may exercise choice, or occasionally there may be little choice at all. This seems to be good opportunity for closer collaboration between the local employers, industrial, commercial, etc., through their appropriate organizations, such as federations, Chambers of Commerce, etc., and the educational and Ministry of Labour authorities (with possibly the scientific bodies) so that supply and demand are married together and the boys guided accordingly towards the most appropriate openings. On this basis we hope the boys entering industry will be a reasonable cross-section of those available, at least in general qualities; we (and they) have then three possibilities confronting us:

(a) The boy's choice.
(b) If no special choice, the job WE think he would do best in.
(c) The filling of the first available vacancy, irrespective of its nature.

Wherever possible I believe the boy's own interests should be studied, providing it conforms to general policy. It doesn't matter whether he changes his mind later—we have got his interest, which is a vital thing.

Failing this, we should use, as in (*b*), every endeavour to place him where WE think he would be interested and there is every possibility that the entrance examinations and tests now available will take us quite a long way towards reasonable success in "placing."

The possibility (*c*) should be avoided wherever possible, as it implies that the main interest in a boy is his immediate use, with a dash of "cheap labour" thrown in.

*Subsequent Choices*

How far should we go towards giving a youth free choice of job in his subsequent training? I believe a long way. During his first few years in industry we, and he, are both rather exploratory in outlook, and little attempt should be made to tie a youth down to one functional job, even if *he* seems satisfied. During these early years a planned series of moves should take place, and every care taken to see that mutual reactions are carefully recorded and used to determine a trend towards real satisfaction later on in industrial life when change is not so easy or desirable. I won't attempt to define in detail a programme of moves through specific departments as many others have already done this, and in any case I am trying to survey the whole of industry and wish only to stress the principles involved. *The moves should, I think, be designed to give each youth opportunity to practise the principal operations performed* in the class of industry to which he is attached, and special opportunity should be given to work in the department concerned with the care and upkeep of tools and machines used in the factory. The periods in the "process" departments should be secondary.

The objections raised to frequent moves are that:

(*a*) The youth doesn't settle down to a real departmental loyalty in a short period.

(*b*) He doesn't learn more than a smattering of the work of the department.

Dealing with (*a*) we should remember that the training department personnel should be his *principal* guides in the first few years and he should be encouraged to regard the

training department as his "home base," being lent out, as it were, to departments for certain periods. This outlook is rare at present but might be encouraged.

With (*b*) I do think that we can afford to neglect, relatively, a concentrated *functional* training in the first two or three years if, in doing so, we allow the youth and ourselves to find out more of his real possibilities. After all, there are plenty of years ahead when the real interest and value of a man in the *right* job will repay handsome dividends to both, or alternatively, will lose as much if the youth, kept on one unsuitable job, becomes the man with only a fraction of his potential value used.

## A PROGRAMME OF PRACTICAL TRAINING

I don't want, in this book, to go into detail, for reasons previously explained, but here are thoughts on a few very important aspects of practical training to which I attach much importance.

### (*a*) *Industrial responsibility for real training*

Industry must do better than before the war on real training of practical-minded youths. Not one firm in twenty had a real scheme, and although many might disagree I think that the opportunity given by firms employing under about 100 people is too limited for comprehensive training to be given. At least 87 per cent of firms are under this size, and many of them might have to take on older, already trained men rather than waste potential ability by bad training methods. The larger firms would have to accept greater responsibilities than at present, which might mean:

### (*b*) *State control*

I am waving a red flag to many here, but let us admit that many good things came out of regulating certain activities, and in any case my idea of State control is only the responsibility for approving national and/or local training or apprenticeship plans and enforcing an obligation on employers to take seriously the youth responsibilities

of our country. There must be greater co-operation with the Ministry of Education on industrial training, and you cannot hit at the Ministry with one hand for its lack of interest and hold it off completely with the other. I do not think that the State should actually attempt to run practical training, this being left to appropriate industrial firms, singly or in groups, as, although technical colleges may appropriately be the State's concern, our experience with such activities as the Ministry of Labour training centres for *practical* work tells us that it is difficult to induce a sense of commercially efficient reality into a non-commercial set-up. With the largely theoretical training given by technical colleges this is not so difficult, particularly if the students (and teachers) can link college theory with works commercial reality, which is possible on the part-time basis.

### (c) *Licensed authority to train*

The status of training would be improved if those companies empowered to run an apprenticeship plan were given a licence, which would be subject to State satisfaction with the plan. Each youth finishing his training, in whatever the category (and there can obviously be several) would then receive tangible national proof of training, and I hope such proof would mean much more than some of the present-day "indentures," which mean little more than proof of a company having extracted, a few years ago, a fee from parents who were more doting than discerning.

### SUMMARY OF PERIOD 2(*b*)

Opportunity for youth to find the most suitable work.
  (*a*) Encourage "vocational guidance" techniques, so that there is greater possibility of fitting a youth to the type of work for which he will be most suited.
  (*b*) Build up greater national and local collaboration between education authorities, Ministry of Labour and employers of labour, possibly also scientific bodies, so that the requirements of each are more effectively integrated

and a greater success achieved in "placing" youths, as envisaged in (*a*).

(*c*) Build up better "selection" methods in industry, so that entrants may be graded in accordance with their aptitude and characteristics.

(*d*) Keep careful records of every youth, with special reference to aptitudes and characteristics.

(*e*) Set up a planned practical training course for each youth, with special regard at all times for his individual choice. Individual choice or departmental requirements should not, however, be allowed to interfere with logical progress under the course.

(*f*) The course should be designed to cover all principal practical aspects of the industrial unit, with special regard to the care and use of tools and machines.

(*g*) During this course the training department should be the "home base" of each youth, and he should be "lent" to various departments. This outlook implies that the basic responsibility is vested in the trainer and that "ultimate value" is more important than "immediate value."

(*h*) Every youth should, on completion of training, be given tangible proof, in the form of suitable indentures, which are backed by the State. The State, in order to give this backing, should licence suitable firms to train entrants on a suitable plan and should check adherence to the plan.

*Period* 2(*c*) OPPORTUNITY FOR YOUTH TO APPRE-
CIATE THE POSITION OF INDUSTRY IN THE
COMMUNITY AND HIS OWN RESPONSIBILITIES
TOWARDS ACHIEVING ''PUBLIC SPIRIT THROUGH
INDUSTRIAL PRIDE''

In the preceding sections 2(*a*) and 2(*b*) we concerned ourselves with the essential practical training of each youth. Now, we ought to consider our responsibilities to him in the sphere of citizenship before going on to the question of theoretical training, which I will cover in the next section.

I mentioned earlier that many educationists and parents do not appreciate the place of industry in the community. I am hoping this outlook will be modified a little as a result of the war contacts, but in any case we,

by normal responsibilities, and later by law, through "County Colleges"[1] must explain "industry" and enable the entrants to realize its value and, through it, the value of the community in which he lives.

How can this be realized?

Before 1939 over 70 per cent of our boys left school at about 14, and very few of them ever attended again any real course of further education or training, in other than a narrow practical sense. Those few who did go on to further education probably spent most time in technical evening classes on the theoretical aspects of the trade in which they were engaged. We can therefore assume that the amount of time spent by the average youth between 14 and 21 on "citizen" subjects was, and is, very, very small, and is a weakness which we must overcome. Incidentally, it will be a great mistake to wait for the formal setting up of County Colleges by the State. We in industry should match the needs of the hour by doing something ourselves about it, thereby creating facilities, teachers and other necessities in advance of normal State progress.[2]

WHAT ARE "CITIZEN" SUBJECTS?

Broadly, the full objective is given at the head of this section, period 2(*c*). We must, however, break the objective down into sub-headings. Let us see what they are:

*Main objectives:*

    (*a*)   To appreciate the position of industry in the community.
    (*b*)   To encourage individual responsibility for achieving public spirit through industrial pride.

*Sub-headings:*

    (*a*)1  A general historical background.
    (*a*)2  A general background of human working activities.
    (*a*)3  A knowledge of the industry in which one is at present and its relationship with other human activities.
    (*a*)4  A knowledge of elementary economics.

[1] *Educational Reconstruction*, Government White Paper, 1943.
[2] See also page 178.

(a)5 Ability to express, by reading, writing, and mutual expression, the knowledge above.

(b)1 A willing acceptance of individual responsibility.

(b)2 A desire to do better than "average" in all things attempted.

(b)3 A willingness to take greater interest in citizenship, with, however, always the strong background of pride and status in one's industrial job.

Re-reading the Bible I was struck by a phrase from the Sermon on the Mount which seemed particularly adaptable to my present argument. It was: "Whosoever shall compel thee to go one mile—go with him twain."

Now, objective (a) is the first mile, representative of the basic knowledge which we should all be "compelled" to possess in reasonable amount so that we may perform our daily obligations to self, job, and community. But is (a) enough? Surely we must aim beyond our immediate grasp, be it only a short way, and objective (b) therefore represents the salt of endeavour—that second mile where the really worth-while things are done which set the standards of the future. Not a great many attempt to run it, fewer still achieve it, but no training scheme for youths (or adults) is worth-while that does not set and encourage high standards of personal responsibilities and performances, although we recognize the fact that a majority of "one milers" will prevail.

SUMMARY OF PERIOD 2(c):

We might come to the following general conclusions:

1. That training in citizen subjects should continue without a break after leaving school (period 1). It will be noted that courses in citizenship subjects are envisaged by the Board of Education in the "County Colleges" which will become a part of industry's post-war period 2.[1]

2. That this training in citizen subjects will take up some of the time now devoted to "trade" or "functional" tuition and therefore we may have to (a) increase the "apprenticeship" period, or (b) decrease the period spent on practical

[1] White Paper.

and/or theoretical work. I hope we shall increase the "apprenticeship" as even a starting age of 16 will give five years before having "the key of the door." To-day it is fashionable to pack an apprenticeship into three or four years, which is on the short side.

3. That continuous encouragement should be given to those who wish to attempt the "second mile" of human endeavour. Once again this emphasizes the importance of having a central training department and plan with full records of each individual.

4. That interest in citizenship must be developed from a strong background of pride and status in one's industrial job. Once again I would stress "public spirit through industrial pride."

5. That encouragement is given to link the industrial "unit" as a whole, and the individuals in it, to the community by encouraging a wider outlook among youths, based on 4 above.

I have not attempted to provide a detailed syllabus to achieve the sub-headings (a)1 to (b)3 on page 212. This is frankly not so important as the principles I have attempted to prescribe. It is certainly not so important as the necessity for full realization among industrialists that in creating, say, engineers, we should also create men.

*Period* 2(*d*) OPPORTUNITY TO STUDY THE THEORETI-
CAL ASPECTS OF HIS INDUSTRIAL CHOICE UP
TO THE LIMIT OF HIS CAPACITY

By "theoretical" I mean, of course, the study of basic laws, along the lines discussed in Chapter 5, page 80, There I attempted to stress the importance of this aspect of training and will assume that it is not necessary to convince you again. Rather do I want to fit it into the broad period of youth training.

Just before the war 98 per cent of the youths in industry who went to continuation classes (and two-thirds don't go at all) attended entirely in their own time, after working hours. More and more firms are recognizing that this instruction of "tired pupils by tired teachers" places a heavy strain on youths who, while perhaps studying two

or three evenings a week for examination also try to spend time on other outside activities such as youth organizations. Obviously something suffers, and it isn't quite good enough to say that "We did it once, why can't they?" We wouldn't like to ride to-day the bike or car we had in those days!

The progressive firms are now collaborating with technical colleges so that a mutually satisfactory scheme of part-time training takes place, with a minimum of about one full or two half-days per week, paid for by the company. I believe this trend to be right and from experience over the last few years would say that it is producing youths more balanced and of a slightly higher overall standard than before. It is, of course, one more reason why it may be desirable to extend the "apprenticeship" or period of formal training, so that all these subjects can be properly taught without sacrificing any one of them.

I do think that evening classes for youths should continue, as every worth-while youth should have organized opportunity for further study beyond the working day should he desire it, and in any case it is wrong to give every facility in working hours; there must be a sharing basis, and every "second miler" will accept that responsibility. Let us, as industrialists, see that the facilities for the "first mile" are there for all, but encourage the youth who wishes to run the "second mile" to put himself out in doing so. We will respond if he does.

By our responses I do not mean just giving facilities for part-time school training. These should be given to every youth who enters industry. We know, however, that one day a week for a few years will suffice for many, whereas whose tho show greater promise, i.e. the "second milers" should be given greater facilities in response to their own endeavours. Such facilities as further time off for special study, monetary grants for special courses, travel facilities, even to other countries, all suggest themselves as rewards and encouragement to those who qualify, providing we do not sacrifice their basic *practical* training.

In our search for potential managers those who have

shown such endeavour should be of great interest to us, although it is surprising to find, as I have recently, that among the actual supervisors attending "foremanship training courses" in the London and Midland area, only about 10–20 per cent have ever attended any continuation or part-time courses since leaving school, which in most cases was an elementary school. This discovery was staggering and proved, if anything, that the majority of junior supervisors in our better-class factories did not, in their earlier years, apparently show much interest in further study outside their practical daily work, and that the keen part-time students went to almost any job except supervisory ones.

Several morals may be drawn from this discovery, the most important being:

(*a*) The "dilution" of supervision during the war meant that we had to draw from lower grades who normally would not have risen to supervisory ranks.

(*b*) Proof of having taken continued education is not necessarily proof of ability to hold a *supervisory* job.

(*c*) Qualities of "leadership" or internal urge for promotion may not become apparent until between, say, twenty and thirty.

All no doubt play a part and I draw the following conclusions:

(*a*) That further opportunity for a more balanced, better training of youth cannot do harm and must raise the general level. If that is achieved then our purpose is achieved, even if only the same percentage of "second milers" appear above the new average level.

(*b*) That the important thing in continued technical education is not that every youth shall have the same course and pass the same examination but that, super-imposed on a sound "general minimum" every youth should, parallel with his practical training, be trained along the technical lines most suited to his capabilities. To some this may lie almost wholly in the practical sphere, with such courses as "workshop technology" more dominant; to others more theoretical subjects like

maths. and science may attract. Whatever they are capable of learning they should be given opportunity to learn and from the products of such training, whether practically or theoretically dominant, we can draw our material for period 3 and for posts of great responsibility.

(*c*) It is doubtful whether "management" qualities are very noticeable to the individual or his associates before he reaches 21. Up to that period we are more concerned with other things and it is doubtful whether we should worry too much before then about using the term "management training" as such, but should, as stressed before, focus attention and activities on our three headings of practical, citizenship and theoretical. Later on these become fused into a more composite training plan for managers. In the meantime let us continue to keep our careful records of every youth so that we can select more accurately those who will go forward to higher things.

SUMMARY OF PERIOD 2(*d*):

Opportunity to study the theoretical aspects of his industrial choice up to the limit of his capacity.

1. Release of all youths for at least one working day (or its equivalent) per week for training in other than their normal practical work is very desirable to encourage a more balanced training, and to avoid the instruction of "tired pupils by tired teachers." This is not to be confused with the part-time county colleges, but is additional.

2. This part-time training should commence as soon as the youth enters industry and should continue for the whole of the training period (up to say 21).

3. Those who respond to part-time training should be given fullest opportunity to extend those facilities, subject to receiving a basic "practical" training.

4. There must, however, be a "sharing" basis and each youth must expect to donate part of his own time to study, in line with the gesture made by the company. Each must respond to the other.

5. In order to give adequate training in practical, theoretical and citizen subjects it is desirable to extend the period

of formal training. It is suggested that four years is a minimum.

6. Even if only the same percentage of "second milers" emerges from a better training scheme it is more than likely that the general level of quality will be raised, with the second milers proportionately higher in quality.

7. It is very important that, superimposed on a sound "general minimum" every youth should be given extra training in accordance with his choice and capabilities up to the limit of his capacity.

8. "Management" qualities or aspirations are not very noticeable during youths' formal training period, which is all too full with other activities, and it is doubtful whether "management" subjects should be taught, as such, during this period. These belong more to period 3, although such activities as an "apprentices committee," run primarily by the youths, help to develop those qualities which later on are brought out still further by management training.

*Period* 3—MANAGERIAL TRAINING

(*a*). OPPORTUNITY TO OBTAIN A GREATER APPRE-CIATION OF "ORGANIZATIONAL" PRINCIPLES WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON THE IMPORTANCE OF "PERSONNEL" PROBLEMS

Every "second miler" emerging from the formal training such as I have laid down in period 2 is a potential manager, (hereafter called P.M.). He is always likely to be very much in the minority because, whatever the quality of the milk, only a small proportion of cream rises to the surface. For this reason he is a most valuable asset.

If your records are as good as they should be, you will have little difficulty in picking out these young men and now you, and they, enter what is perhaps more obviously recognized and called management training. You noticed in Fig. 1, page 196, that I divided managerial training into two sections, which may briefly be referred to as:

(a) Organizational.
(b) Personal.

I want to refer to each in greater detail.

Now, having read Chapter 4 on "Organization" you are fairly clear on its meaning and scope (do I flatter myself —or you?) How can training in it be given? Before answering, let us see what our P.M.'s are doing when they reach the end of period 2. Some may have, by special aptitude, gone forward to a university, others towards an "office" function such as accounting or costing, and if the right selection has been made at all stages of training during the previous few years the industrial organization should have had recruits in reasonably balanced numbers supplied to all its departments. Probably the majority, on this basis, will still be in one or other of the "factory" departments and will be called by such names as "journeyman toolmaker," junior draughtsman, junior all-sorts-of-things, with only occasionally a junior *supervisor* such as setter, charge-hand, or section-leader in view. After all, up to the 21–23 stage there hasn't been much time to achieve this step, therefore we should realize how junior the P.M. still is; how much time there is to give a good training in what is wanted, and how many supervisory and managerial "rungs" are available to provide ever-higher spheres for exercising his widening outlook and experience.

This is important, as I believe it is unwise to pack too much "managerial training" into our P.M. in too short a time and unwise also to give him the possible impression that he is too important at this early stage. What are the various ways in which we can widen the outlook and experience of our P.M.?

*(a) Consolidating the existing occupation*

I make no apology for referring again to the importance of having a good functional background. It is much better to have your "management" qualities superimposed on a good technical knowledge and practical experience such as I have shown in Fig. 1, page 74. If, for instance, our P.M. has entered a drawing office at about the age 21–23 he must have a few years really to claim a reasonable working knowledge of the workings of a D.O.; as a chemist

a working knowledge of applied chemistry; as a toolmaker he must expand his toolroom experience beyond his "basic" training, and so for every other managerial candidate. I regard this "consolidation" period as most important, although many people seem to feel that such a period is unnecessary and that the management job is just round the corner. There are many corners yet, and a period of a few years practising a specific functional job as a "journey-man" is a first-class start up the spiral ladder of management.

### (b) Opportunity to study other departments

Every P.M. should, at an early stage, be given a few weeks studying the company organization and observing how one department fits in (we hope) with the others. This is the first step towards an appreciation of co-operative effort and organization principles and practice, although he won't really understand much about the principles of such matters yet.

I have found a great keenness on the part of functional heads and their staff to explain the workings of their departments to such visitors, and the P.M. should reach the end of this tour with a good appreciation of something he has probably never realized before, i.e. the interdependence of departments and the fact that his own is not the only one of importance. He should render a report on this tour (and we should read it!).

### (c) Transfer to other functional departments

This tour may open up in the P.M.'s mind a possibility of transfer to broaden his experience. I have just seen the case of a youth coming out of period 2 who was able, by this tour, to clarify his thoughts on which technical department he would like ultimately to enter. Naturally such moves must be carefully considered in relation to all requirements, but we should not hesitate to broaden his "functional" experience by reasonable moves, particularly if he expresses a desire which seems logical.

## (d) Join Technical Institution

Every P.M. should have explained to him his obligations towards raising the standards of his functional activity, which can best be realized by joining an appropriate
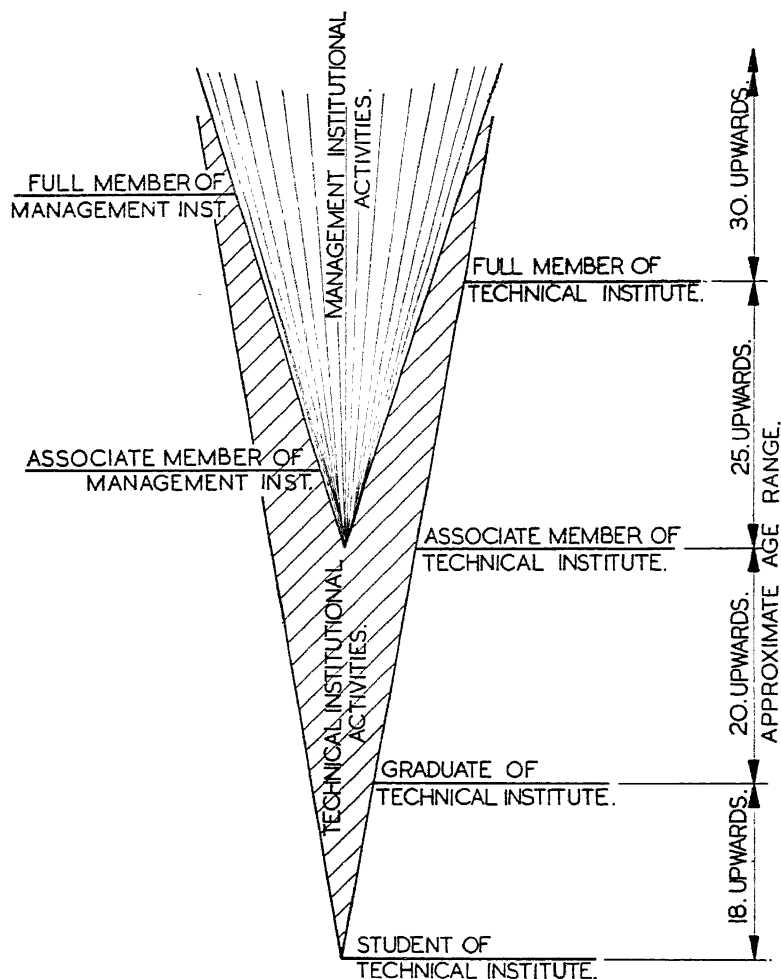


Fig. 2. The blending of Technical and Management Institution Membership

technical institute, such as the Institutions of Production Engineers, Electrical Engineers, Mechanical Engineers, Cost and Works Accountants, etc. I stress the word "technical" as at this stage I don't think the time is ripe

for him to join an "administrative" or "management" institution, quite apart from the facts that he may not yet be able to afford two subscriptions. I show a suggested plan of institutional activity in Fig. 2 which shows that in the early years of period 3 the P.M. will probably qualify for studentship of the technical institute concerned. He is thus introduced to one more aspect of "industrial pride."

*(e) Works and other visits*

Joining such an institution means greater opportunity to visit other works, and such-like places of interest. Every encouragement should be given by higher-uppers to allow this broadening experience, and once every month it is well worth while. A report should be expected in prompt time if the visit is in company's time. Don't forget organized visits also to other departments or factories in *your own* Company. Among other benefits it keeps the place tidy!

*(f) Part-time Managerial Training*

You will remember that during period 2 I recommended at least one day per week given to all students for technical training. I believe each P.M. should be given, after the first year in period 3, at least half a day per week for internal or external training in managerial subjects. The syllabus should start at the bottom and lesson one is not "How to become a Managing Director."

The Institute of Industrial Administration has given a good lead in sponsoring a course such as the one of (nominally) 2 years' duration (minimum once a week) on "Foremanship and Works Supervision." The main headings of a typical course are:

1. General Principles of Foremanship and Supervision.
2. Elements of Labour Management.
3. Principles of Production and Planning.
4. Principles of Remuneration and Rate-fixing.
5. Elements of Costing.

A large number of junior and potential supervisors

have taken such a course in the last few years and I have been honoured by various invitations to address them. They have invariably taken place out of working hours, and as he is a "second miler" I think the P.M. will always be willing to sacrifice some of his own time to training. I make a plea for a half-day per week company time in order to augment the present evening or week-end study. The courses mentioned above have usually two main types of activity:

> (*a*) Lectures and discussions (large groups).
> (*b*) "Case" studies (small groups).

I think it might be admirable to continue (*a*) in the evenings during the P.M.'s time and (*b*) during the half-day company time, as the difficulties of getting a large group together during working hours are apparent, whereas they do not apply so much to the small group which is rather essential to consider effectively a specific case problem.

It is important to consider whether these activities should take place inside or outside. I think the best results come through a combination of each.

The outside activities could more suitably cater for the larger groups such as the "Supervisory Discussion Groups" set up in various parts of the country. Here opportunity is given to meet supervisors from other firms and industries, and the interchange of views and experiences should broaden the outlook of each member participating. From personal experience, however, I believe that these outside activities should be superimposed on, and not take the place of internal supervisory training. If no attempt is made internally to train supervisors there is likely to develop among them a critical attitude to their firms when discussing problems with outsiders. The supervisor who broadens his contacts outside with full realization of the internal interest in his training is likely to gain in stature both ways. The supervisor who is driven to take part in outside activities because he is not catered for inside is just as likely to be narrowed as broadened.

## (g) Taking part in Internal "Case" Studies

You all know the idea behind a "case study?" Every problem satisfactorily solved in the company is a potential case-study problem for junior supervisors, just as every operation performed in a hospital gives opportunity to train students as well as seniors.

Every company, whatever its size, should create facilities for a regular discussion on the more interesting problems of a supervisory or managerial nature that have arisen. A suggested scheme is for one or other senior to put forward a "case" to the training supervisor. The latter satisfies himself on the material presented and issues it in advance as a problem to a selected group of not more than about twelve P.M.'s. They study the "case" and come forward prepared to offer a solution, which they do verbally. Every P.M. is encouraged to speak and at the end the senior who set the problem sums up and gives his actual solution. Any P.M. who wishes can later raise points which are still not clear, or on which he is dissatisfied.

It is suggested that a case be discussed once a fort-night, either in the half-day period mentioned in (f) or in the evening. The advantages of this method are considerable:

(a) It enables an internal group spirit to be developed as the "students" come from all departments.

(b) It enables each to plan a solution in advance of presentation.

(c) It encourages each to speak clearly and logically before others.

(d) It gives contact with seniors.

(e) It deals with *actual* cases, and not theory only.

(f) It enables the seniors present to size up the students.

(g) It keeps the seniors on their toes because their solution is liable to be "shot at."

Further details of discussion group procedure on "case" and other problems will be found in Appendix F.

*(h)  Give special assignments (inside and outside)*

Now and again each P.M. should be  given a special job to do, usually within his functional activities.   It is easy for a senior to do this even if he already knows the answer and the result of putting a young fellow "on his own" with no backing except "terms of reference" is worth a lot to all concerned.   It is quite easy occasionally to give a temporary supervisory appointment during a rush period. Sometimes a hint can be dropped as one walks round a department, particularly where you contact the junior supervisor, that "you would like a report on a certain aspect of the department's work."   The willingness of those concerned to rise to the bait is yet another way of assessing supervisory merit.

When such a report, whether on the special assignment, or the more routine problem, is completed, the junior should always be brought into the discussion which ought to take place on it.   Many senior supervisors don't do this, and leave the impression that they are afraid the juniors will steal their own thunder.   This brings me logically to:

*(i)  Bring juniors into senior discussions occasionally*

I have already commented on this in Chapter 4, page 63.   How few senior supervisors bring their juniors into deliberate contact with a managerial discussion?   How few junior supervisors bring a "ranker" into touch with a senior supervisory discussion?

This is a first-class way of training the junior, who should be impressed and learn something from these "upper" conferences.   If he isn't and doesn't, blame yourself, not the method.   I know of few better ways of creating junior enthusiasm than "inviting the draughts-man in to explain his new lay-out to us"; "the setter to explain personally the troubles on a certain machine," and so on, with, of course, senior supervisory agreement.   It helps the junior and once again enables you to see him in action on a specific job.   Watch the way he presents his case, stands up to criticism, and so on.   I know one company which organizes a lunch every Monday, where a

reaonable cross-section of the supervisory and managerial grades are present on rota. A subject of general interest is chosen, circulated in advance, and after lunch about forty-five minutes are devoted to a discussion on it. It's a good way of providing a meeting-ground for all grades from all departments, with social and technical mixed in reasonable proportions.

### (j) Periodic rating of P.M.'s by seniors

Opportunities such as created in (g), (h) and (i) will enable the training supervisor (who still has an interest in training) and various higher supervisory people to rate periodically all those concerned. An organized effort should be made to do this and the progress and trend of each P.M. discussed. This may prove the desirability of changing his job, giving him promotion, etc., and, as a system, is far more positive than waiting for vacancies and then sorting out your material.

I would strongly recommend that this rating is done by at least four people, such as the higher manager, the departmental head, the training supervisor, and the personnel manager. This ensures a "basic" representation and continuous policy. At least one company I know gets the local shop steward to give a rating before a supervisor is promoted in a department. There are many worse ideas, as I have mentioned before.

### (k) Preparation of technical papers

Occasionally a P.M. may prepare a report and complete an investigation which may be of general interest. He should be encouraged to give it as a paper to either his technical institute or to a group of people inside, under the auspices of the company's discussion group, or some such body, which is run by many live firms. From personal experience I know how much you learn (and unlearn) by agreeing to do this. You are given a target, you must speak publicly to people who may know more than you (although you didn't know it previously!) but you may

come through it with flying colours and a real sense of achievement and confidence.

## (*l*) *Study of the technical press*

Every worth-while firm encourages those in it to keep up to date on current knowledge by reading appropriate technical journals. Never hesitate to buy a few more copies of *Machinery*, etc., if it means that the readers have more opportunity to study. In most factories one copy starts off full of life, but ends up months later hardly fit for salvage. It is sometimes a good plan to ask a junior in passing "whether he has read so-and-so"; it is a good stimulant. Occasionally mark a page for special consideration by someone on the list and follow him up. Allow people to write articles, subject to a company O.K. on company matters; generally they won't abuse the privilege and the company benefits in the long run.

## (*m*) *Encourage P.M. to qualify for Associate Membership of Technical Institution*

In (*d*) we discussed the desirability of becoming a student of an appropriate functional institution. With a couple of years' experience in period 2 as a "journeyman" our P.M. should endeavour to qualify for the next stage of membership.

Most institutions vary in qualifications, grades and age limits, and here are a few typical ones which, around the age range 23–25, are available in various spheres:

| Technical Institution | Grade | Age range | Method of entry |
|---|---|---|---|
| Institution of | Grad. | Min. 21 | Exam. |
| Mechanical Engineers | A.M. | Min. 25 | Exam. |
| Institution of | Grad. | Min. 21 | Exam. |
| Electrical Engineers | A.M. | Min. 26 | Exam. |
| Institution of | Grad. | Min. 21 | Exam. |
| Production Engineers | A.M. | Min. 28 | Election. |
| Institution of | Grad. | Min. 20 | Exam. or |
| Chemical Engineers | | | Election. |
| | A.M. | Min. 25 | Exam. |
| Institute of the | Junior | Up to 25 | Election. |

| Technical Institution | Grade | Age range | Method of entry |
|---|---|---|---|
| Plastics Industry | Ordinary | Min. 25 | Election. |
| Institute of Cost and | Student | Min. 21 | Inter. Exam. |
| Works Accountants | Fellow | Min. 30 | Final Exam. |

I consider it most desirable for *every* technical institution to insist on the passing of the appropriate examinations up to and including what is normally called the "associate member" grade, and with a suitable background of training, and good references, our P.M. should be able, following my suggested course, to qualify for Associate Membership.

This membership should be regarded as a definite step forward in status and an obligation to his job, underlining his previous decision to take a full share of responsibility in promoting the national status of his functional activity. To his associates it should represent the achievement of a certain target or standard in his functional work, which, as explained in (*a*), is such an admirable "base" from which to advance towards "managerial" training and responsibility.

(*n*) *Attendance at other institutional activities*

By this time (23–26 years) our P.M. should have a junior supervisory position in one department or another. In his recent experience and examinations he has learned something of subjects which border more on the "supervisory" and "managerial" than on the "technical," such as Section C (Workshop Organization and Management) of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers; "Factory Organization" of the Institution of Production Engineers, and the Institute of Cost and Works Accountants.

This introduction to "organizational" problems will no doubt stimulate our P.M. to further knowledge and he should now be encouraged to take more specific interest in such matters. The "case" problems mentioned in (*g*) can be biased in this direction, as can the special assignments and other extra-functional activities. Another good way is to encourage him to attend meetings of institutions outside his own technical sphere, such as the Institute of

Labour Management and Institute of Industrial Administration.

These institutions, with other bodies such as the National Institute of Industrial Psychology and Industrial Welfare Society, hold special courses and conferences from time to time. Give the P.M. opportunity to attend them so that his personal contacts and outlook are widened.

*(o)* *Membership of Management Institutions*

With the development I have mapped out in the preceding sections reasonably achieved, our P.M. who is now, we hope, an established supervisor (although perhaps still in a junior capacity) should give greater attention, and we with him, to the "organizational" requirements of industry. Now is a suitable time for him to join an institution which will link him up with "management" in a more definite sense than previously, when his "technical" side was more predominant.

There are few such institutions of any standing, and perhaps the best is the Institute of Industrial Administration, which has done good work in supervisory and managerial training. I would like to comment however, on one aspect of membership of this and similar "management" institutions. The I.I.A. has a "student" grade with age limits of 17–25 years, and for two higher grades the qualifications are:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Graduate:* | (*a*) | Examination. |
| | (*b*) | Not less than 20 years old. |
| *Associate* | (*a*) | Examination (or election). |
| *Member:* | (*b*) | Not less than 25 years old. |
| | (*c*) | Executive experience and administrative responsibility in an industrial or other capacity for not less than three years. |

Let us consider (*c*) above. There are many who have had *general* experience in various departments, shop or office, who would possibly qualify. To say, however, that these people have really been trained would be wrong— they have merely picked up a lot of odd pieces of information. You and I know of such cases. Yet it is possible for

them to satisfy, apparently, the requirements of associate membership.

Is it not desirable that one qualification for associate membership (and over) of the I.I.A. or similar *management* institutions should be at least associate membership of an appropriate *technical* institution? We would then go one stage further towards ensuring that men reach management status through industrial "functional" status, whether the latter be mechanical, chemical, production or "office" side.

There may be exceptions to make, particularly in the transitional period, but I believe that the following advantages would ultimately arise from this suggestion:

1. A closer collaboration between all "industrial" institutions. (There aren't enough joint meetings now.)
2. A closer understanding between the technical institutions on their respective grades and qualifications.
3. A closer collaboration between technical and management institutions, so that there is a logical connection between the "organizational" qualifications and activities of one and the other.
4. A greater guarantee that those entering the management ranks possess a basic status in one or other technical profession, so that management is superimposed on a sound functional base.

Well, I think you will agree that constant encouragement and training along the lines I have suggested should give our P.M. every opportunity to broaden his outlook and experience. He started the period as a "journeyman"; he is now (we hope) a supervisor of one grade or another with a sound grasp of organizational principles, reinforced by many practical examples. His feet should be firmly on the ladder, and it now rests more and more with him to see that he doesn't fall off, remembering at the same time that "the further you fall the more it hurts."

SUMMARY OF PERIOD 3(*a*)

There are many ways in which the technically trained

potential manager can be trained towards supervision and management. These represent the most important:

(a) Consolidating the existing occupation.
(b) Opportunity to study other departments.
(c) Transfers to other functional departments.
(d) Join functional professional institution.
(e) Works and other visits.
(f) Part-time managerial training.
(g) Taking part in internal "Case" studies.
(h) Give special assignments (inside and outside).
(i) Bring juniors into senior discussions occasionally.
(j) Periodic rating of P.M.'s by seniors.
(k) Preparation of papers.
(l) Study of the technical papers.
(m) Encourage P.M. to qualify for Associate Membership of Technical Institution.
(n) Attendance at other institutional activities.
(o) Membership of Management Institutions.

*Period* 3(*b*). OPPORTUNITY TO EXERCISE AND DE-VELOP HIS "PERSONAL" QUALITIES IN THE TECHNICAL, ORGANIZATIONAL AND SOCIAL SPHERES

In the preceding section period 3(*a*) we discussed the various ways in which our potential manager could expand his knowledge and experience so that his *supervisory* qualities could be developed. These were discussed under the general heading of "organizational training" although a little thought will convince you that the "personal" qualities of the P.M. would also be expanded in gaining this greater knowledge and experience.

Therefore, although this section 3(*b*) is ostensibly devoted to "personal" aspects, it is difficult and undesirable to create watertight divisions of training. I might say that while the preceding section was devoted principally to an outward search for broader knowledge and experience by the P.M. this section is more concerned with an inward search for greater perfection by him, i.e. an attempt to expand his own personality in order to use effectively the knowledge gained in preceding years.

This is most important as I am convinced that so many people have ample knowledge, in the form of accumulated facts, but lack the ability to co-ordinate them, and apply them to the solution of problems in the managerial field. That is why the major part of this second phase of managerial training must be directed towards improving the "personal" qualities of the P.M.

*What are these personal qualities?*

I can do no better than refer you to Chapter 3, where the more important are shown and discussed briefly. I won't repeat them here, but attempt rather to suggest ways and means how the junior managers may be helped to build themselves to full stature.

*(a) The position of the P.M.*

At the end of period 3(*a*) we left our P.M. as a supervisor of one sort or another, a post of responsibility which the large majority of his class should have reached with a training programme such as I have outlined. As a supervisor he is in a fairly limited class, so that it is relatively easy for his superiors to keep accurate records of his progress, such as I mentioned on frequent occasions. In the systematic study of these records the senior manager or appropriate director should be regularly present, as this survey is one of the most vital in the company. What will it tell us?

*(b) Exploiting the weaknesses of the P.M.*

We should not, at this stage, concern ourselves with his strong points—they are more likely to develop naturally. We *are* concerned with his weaknesses, and every possible effort should be made (1) to isolate them; (2) to discuss them with the P.M. in a "personal audit" such as I describe in Chapter 3, page 25 and (3) to create conditions for their improvement.

I have found that it is difficult to teach a person beyond his experience. This may sound odd, but means, briefly,

that *learning is more effective if it arises directly out of doing something oneself*, particularly if the thing done is found by oneself to be wrong. Obviously, therefore, the more opportunities for coming into contact with experiences the more experience gained.

This principle is important and leads to one of the most effective ways by which the weaknesses can be "inwardly" exposed, and, we hope, experience gained. Let us take a few examples:

1. You appoint a supervisor to a new post. He is given clear guidance and "terms of reference" beforehand so that your own immediate responsibilities are discharged. The supervisor is on his own thereafter and should be allowed, for a reasonable period, to stand or fall on his own feet. Whether he meets, or falls down on his target, his experience will stick far better if he is allowed fully to work out his own destiny. Any too-early attempts on your part to break in on his experiences are likely to weaken his own personal sense of performance, or lack of it. It may be hard for you to keep away knowing that you can give help, but working out his own troubles (and improving your tolerance) should be encouraged to a high degree. Ultimately, particularly if the target is not met, the performance must be discussed fully with the supervisor and the lessons confirmed.

2. A problem is set with no suggestions on how to solve it, beyond stating the problem clearly. The supervisor must fight his own way through the undergrowth towards its solution, rather than have a road prepared for him. We all know the sort of form on which all the questions are shown, and you merely have to tick off appropriate ones. In this case, however, the supervisor has to formulate his own questions as well as getting the answers.

3. When a job has been badly done it occasionally pays to say nothing about it to the defaulter. He may think more about why you *didn't* talk to him than if you had. This may be particularly effective where departmental results are being checked over at, for instance, a progress meeting. Each supervisor will try very hard to achieve target if each target is publicized in the presence of others in a similar position. If he falls down it is usually unnecessary

to say much to him, unless, of course, he is a complete misfit, when other action is necessary. This is the indirect approach and any supervisor worthy of the name will respond to the good performances of others if he knows that his own are less satisfactory.

4. Bringing in an occasional new supervisor from outside is a good tonic. Make certain the patient needs the tonic; in other words, that you don't pass over a reasonable candidate. Even one newcomer, has, however, toned up many who were not in the same department.

## (c) Broadening the outlook

It is not enough to concentrate on weaknesses alone, although if one continues to do this one bottleneck after another may be opened out and the total "capacity" made progressively greater. There should be opportunity for expanding the "general personality," and this is best accomplished by broadening the range of contacts and experiences of the person concerned.

The various methods described under period 3(a) apply also here in the wider sphere of supervisory outlook. Such activities as institutional contacts, works visits, mixing with other supervisors, all play their part in smoothing down the rough edges of a personality just as a rumbling barrel performs the same operation when a number of components are placed together inside it. A number of other ways suggest themselves as suitable training activities in the direction of "personality" rather than organizational or technical. Such are:

1. *Representation on Joint Committees.* I have stressed in Chapter 9 and Appendix (B) that the managerial representative on such a committee and its sub-committees should not be confined to senior managers. Junior grades of managers should be included, even if they can only attend alternate meetings. Similarly, the junior managers should be given greater opportunities on sub-committees, where they have to stand on their own feet rather more and are tested more severely.

This type of organized meeting for and with various

levels of personnel is excellent training in "personal" qualities.

2. *Supervisory responsibility for "personnel" activities.* One of the best ways to give our junior greater confidence and stability is to get him used to direct dealings with personnel and accepting full responsibility for the decisions reached. I have referred to this under "Courage" in Chapter 3, page 38, and now is the time when he has both the status and the opportunity to develop this quality, which is so relatively weak in many of us. The opportunities are many and cover such problems as promotion (usually of others), demotion, salary or wages, lateness, absenteeism, time off for various reasons, shop steward approaches, and so on. Every difficulty dodged or slurred over is a failure to take the responsibilities of management. Every such problem tackled resolutely, thought out with extreme care and settled with fairness is another rung climbed on the ladder of managerial achievement.

3. *Extra-company activities.* By these I mean such activities as a supervisor's club or discussion group, inside or outside. In my own company we have a "technical discussion group" whose object is to "present to members of the company subjects of technical interest." The senior managers do nothing beyond displaying keen interest, and all the organizing, chairmanship, and details is done by a committee of supervisors. I am sure the training given to them is good. It develops co-operation among the supervisors, by the supervisors, for the "whole."

4. *Sharing experiences.* No problem of general application should be settled by a manager without sharing its implications and lessons with his immediate colleagues and subordinates. Opportunity to put over these "case studies" can be found at the "link" meetings described in Chapter 8, page 133, and at supervisory discussion groups (see Appendix F). Now, it isn't always necessary to defer the final *decision* on a problem until a meeting has been held, because the urgency may not always permit delay. I feel, however, that on most problems of "general" interest the

senior person who has to make the decisions could, in the interests of good training, and often indeed in the interests of "good decision," defer his final decision until after a discussion with the appropriate supervisors.

Who, you will say, are the "appropriate people"? Here is one answer. In one company there are a number of factories, each having a manager. These managers get together every two or three weeks for general discussion and at these so-called "management" meetings general problems are discussed. The chairman of these meetings, or a senior manager, often brings forward outstanding problems which certainly could have been settled by him alone beforehand, and if thought desirable passed on as *decisions* to the meeting. It is not lowering the status of the chairman or senior manager to ask those present for their comments before making the final decision. The results usually justify the slight delay and the principal advantages are:

(*a*) Each is pleased to be given opportunity for presenting his views.

(*b*) Each will contribute something of value. The match *and* the match-box are required to create the spark.

(*c*) Each realizes more fully the many angles of approach.

(*d*) The final solution is likely to be honoured more fully by each one present.

(*e*) The chairman had gained more knowledge of the capabilities of those present.

In any case, whether a decision can wait until after such a meeting or must be made right away, the training value gained by reporting it and discussing it at a subsequent subordinate meeting is considerable as it is dealing with actual problems and the principles arising from them. The higher manager who can always justify his decisions to subordinates is a good manager. He who discusses some with them beforehand is even better.

It is obvious that this particular method of training may be applied at all levels, and is of fundamental importance in the normal set-up of the business, quite apart from its value as a training medium.

SUMMARY OF PERIOD 3(*b*)

This period is concerned more with developing the "personal" qualities of the P.M.

(*a*) It is difficult to segregate "organizational" training from "personality" training.

(*b*) The development of "personality" is more the responsibility of the individual than of the trainer, and is concerned primarily with using more effectively the experience and knowledge gained in preceding years.

(*c*) The more important personal qualities are discussed in Chapter 3, and may be developed by various means.

(*d*) In order to develop them it is necessary to have an accurate record of the progress and characteristics of each junior manager. The senior manager should take a personal interest in them as they are vital to the company's progress.

(*e*) The weaknesses of the junior should be developed first, and the "personal audit" should be a feature of this period.

(*f*) Learning is more effective if it arises out of doing something oneself.

(*g*) The junior manager should be given full scope to stand or fall on his own resources, with his seniors coming in at the conclusion only for consideration of results.

(*h*) Every opportunity should be given for the junior manager to expand his "general" outlook, in a broader sphere than his immediate job.

(*i*) Senior managers should take every opportunity of sharing experiences and decisions with their subordinates, on the basis that a good manager is a good teacher.

FINAL THOUGHTS ON MANAGERIAL TRAINING

All this is book-stuff and nothing in a training programme for managers (or anyone else) can take the place of really live personal contacts and interchange of experiences. A good training plan is, however, death to isolation, as it forces people to share experiences. I hope that, having kept away from the detail of suggesting "so many months in this department, so many in that" I have at least presented a broad paper plan which can be vitalized and

detailed in the manner most appropriate to the individual company concerned.

To the potential supervisor or manager I say that *S*upervisors' *T*raining+ABILITY=STABILITY.

To the board of directors, who should be vitally interested in their successors, I say, in the words of the Proverbs (xxiv, 3) "Through wisdom is an house builded; and by understanding it is established." Wisdom and understanding start at the top, but shouldn't finish there.

# THE ACTION STANDARDS OF THE MANAGER[1]

*Watch keeping is a combination of intelligent foresight and habitual vigilance.*
(Extract from my father's log-book.)
*The art of giving shape to human powers is the supreme art.*
JOHN DEWEY.

*No matter how well they are selected . . . or trained, employees cannot attain maximum efficiency unless they demonstrate the* WILL-TO-WORK *on the daily job.*
M. S. VITELES.

I N previous chapters I have been concerned with the character and training of managers and "the arrangement of the parts in the whole," so that the right relationships exist between all members of the company, led by the manager himself.

Now, good training, selection and organization will go far towards providing that dynamic condition without which no company will ever make good progress. It is not enough, however, just as it is not enough to assemble a watch carefully and set it in motion; *it needs continuous winding to fulfil its legitimate purpose in life.*

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss ways and means of continuously "winding" the manager, by self-generation and, because perpetual motion is not possible, by such external impulses as he can arrange. Keeping to the electrical parallel, how can the manager be a "generator" and not merely a "motor"?

Now, if you refer back to Chapter 3, you will see that (on page 41) I stress the extreme importance of initiative and inspirational qualities in the manager. These two qualities stress action—in the manager as well as in those he leads.

The manager who possesses these qualities in high measure has probably set up certain "action standards" to remind him and others when the "watch" needs winding. He will know that it is not enough to be the one generator within the company but will inspire as many others as

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[1] Part of this chapter was published in *Management in Action*, by The Institute of Industrial Administration, January, 1944.

possible to maintain the standards so that the cumulative effect is all the greater.

Can we reduce these standards to writing? Here are some I have found very valuable to remind me of the way in which all may contribute these continuous impulses so vital to a go-ahead company.

### (A) SETTING THE TARGET

Very few things in life are impossible if one sets a target and "has a go at it." How often has someone said to you "I am doing my best"? I used to say it myself, but I do so no longer because my experiences in the last few years under the stress of war have convinced me beyond doubt that "what was yesterday's impossible can be to-day's commonplace." I look back on production jobs where at the time we saw no solution to the difficulties confronting us; to-day those same jobs are almost elementary.

Let me give two examples, this time from outside the production sphere. The first relates to a savings campaign in a group of factories where the target was set at a figure bearing comparison with the district average; it was achieved. The next campaign saw the target increased considerably by a management which "felt" that it could be done. It was done, if anything more easily. The other example relates to an episode on a northern railway station where I recently saw an amazingly keen and quick job done in connecting two trains together. My comment to a member of the railway staff evoked the reply: "Yes, we have a good record here so everybody sets himself a target every time a train comes in." I can only say that the results were spectacular and spoke well for the feeling of local pride engendered and the ability to have a go at it.

I will admit right away that unchecked targets are liable to lead to undesirable ends, but the whole argument is that, within the limits of true managerial responsibilities, the ability to set yourself, and other people, continuous, worth-while targets is a mark of the good manager. There are certain essentials to be borne in mind in setting targets; here are some:

1. They should be difficult but not impossible.
2. They should allow for an occasional "let-up," such as may be natural around a holiday period.
3. They should be set preferably in conjunction with those who have to achieve them.
4. They should be based on "sensible" demands, i.e. one doesn't set a task if the latter is not really worth while achieving.
5. They should preferably include the "time element."
6. They should be set up to give *all* grades the maximum incentive to complete the task. This is generally accomplished by relating it to the function covered by each individual concerned. It is wiser to assume that a supervisor is more interested in task and achievement within his own specific departmental function than he is in being merely part of the means of achieving a wider target. In brief, main targets must be broken into sub-targets.
7. On a "continuous output" basis the "time element" in the target should be as short as possible. Generally a weekly target is better than a monthly one, and although in, say, a shipyard you cannot (even if Henry Kaiser) complete a ship a week per slip, at least you can record weekly progress against a weekly sub-target.
8. Establish responsibilities clearly where targets are not met.
9. The person setting a target should see that he also sets himself a target in finalizing the results obtained by the person reporting to him.

There is one special aspect of target setting to which I would draw attention—this being the great value of comparing your own company efficiency with others. During the last few years some of our greatest gains were achieved by visiting others making similar work and setting a target where we were found to be less efficient. I can only hope that the willingness of firms to allow mutual contacts will continue, even among competitors. It develops the spirit of co-operation; it broadens the experience; it sets a target, and if only more in industry would view this activity in its broadest sense and act accordingly we should certainly benefit; as a nation, because any one gain is a national gain, and internationally because of the opportunities presented of combining co-operation with enterprise.

To the doubtful I say that more has been lost through timidity than boldness. Remember my recent extract from Kipling, who said, "They copied all they could follow, but they couldn't copy my mind, and I left them sweating and stealing, a year and a half behind." He is still up to date!

(B) SPEEDING UP THE DECISIONS

In Chapter 4 I discussed "lines of contact" (page 59), and the relationship between "direct" and "service" personnel (page 67). The theme of those discussions was that lines of personal contact should be as short as possible, and if those principles are borne in mind then we are halfway towards speeding up the decisions, because (*a*) if your objective is a mile away and you walk at a certain pace you still get there twice as quickly as if it were two miles away, and (*b*) your continuous personal contacts give encouragement for the settlement of outstanding problems.

(C) REACTIONS TO CRITICISM

How do we respond? Do we honestly endeavour to analyse criticism made, inside or outside, in order to improve our organization, or do we assume either that it is unfair; that it may never happen again, or just hope it will sort itself out? Criticism may be a great stimulus to action if accepted on the basis that "perhaps we are wrong after all." Let me give you an example:

A Ministry of Labour report on one factory commented on weak progressing in an otherwise good set-up. The organization chart was examined (a good starting-point), and it was realized that, although the planning superintendent had other supervisors responsible to him for sub-functions like checking and transport, *he himself* was controlling the rank and file of the progressing section. The organization was changed, a progress foreman was appointed, responsible to the superintendent, whose main job now was to control and co-ordinate the activities of his various foremen. The progress chasers, who formerly could not contact the superintendent (their

direct chief), often enough because he was always tied up on general problems, now had a foreman whose principal job was *progressing*. The results have been very good.

A very good plan to stimulate internal comment and (we hope) fair criticism is to arrange frequent organized visits by groups of supervisors (and occasionally rank and file) to the various factories, if more than one exists, and departments of the company. It is a first-class way to stimulate the manager or supervisor of that factory or department, who, knowing that he is going to be under fire, polishes up his wares in anticipation. As a "tidying up" activity alone it is worth its while. As a method of getting groups together for touring the shops and later having a discussion on what they have seen it is of double value. I mentioned earlier (page 132) that one company has its managerial meetings at different factories in turn and here is an opportunity to combine technical discussion with the other general problems discussed at such meetings. On such occasions every effort should be made to let the junior people in the department explain some special set-up or show off a prize suggestion. Don't forget to allow a certain time, over a cup of tea or similar refreshment, for general discussion afterwards. This is where each can be as frank as he wishes, bearing in mind that his turn is coming!                                    .

(D) AVOIDING INCONSISTENCY OF PRODUCTS

Someone said: "Show me a factory whose products are consistent and I will show you a well-organized concern."

Many inspection reports are merely historical documents, and a live, continuous analysis of one's departures from consistency, as expressed through such reports, will go a long way towards improving and stimulating the organization.

Here are a few suggestions:

1. The reports must be promptly supplied.
2. They must allocate individual responsibility down to each supervisor.

3. They must be clearly laid out and expressed in common terms.
4. They should show reasonable trends and indicate targets aimed at.
5. They should emphasize exceptional problems to the exclusion of normalities. (When you try to do something about everything you probably end by doing nothing.)
6. Their frequency of issue should allow reasonable opportunity for examining the current one before the next one on the same subject is issued.
7. They should preferably be prefaced by a short explanatory statement on one or two aspects instead of relying purely on statistics. This creates added interest and often makes the difference between reading and filing away.
8. The should be discussed and analysed by managers and supervisors on the basis that "production saved is production gained."
9. Finally, it must be made clear that the producer is primarily responsible for producing good quality production, not the inspector. (See also Chapter 4, page 69.)

(E) MANAGEMENT BY EXCEPTION

Just previously I said that "when you try to do something about everything you probably end by doing nothing." I believe one of the weaknesses of many managers is an inability to concentrate on a few special problems at a time, but rather to start on something and let the effort drift on to other things, just as a conversation will drift unless there is someone who sees that it sticks to the point. How often have I seen chairmen let the discussion run away from the subject to the extreme detriment of progress on that subject.

If you regard management as "opening up bottlenecks" it is obvious that attention to each bottleneck in turn will maintain the action standards. There are several ways in which this concentration can be assisted, such as the following:

(a) Guidance given to those who prepare routine reports such as costs, rejections, production, lateness, absenteeism, shortages, to stress only those aspects outside the "limits

of reasonable performance." For instance, if in a cost report you can fix limits so that if the *actual* cost of an item concerned is within, say, 5 per cent plus or minus standard cost, then it is not included in the periodic report. You thus have presented for your attention *and action* only those exceptions coming outside limits; the low cost items will enable you to pat backs—the high cost items some other part of the anatomy. It is surprising and gratifying how this method will cut down paper work and improve your ability to pick out essentials. Yet few use it as a managerial tool because many of those who prepare the figures say "we have to get all the figures out therefore we will supply them all." My answer is that I don't want to be the sieve; this function can be reduced (by guidance) to routine, and not routine by a manager.

(*b*) Get broad statistics prepared which, although very concise in character, are at least pointers guiding your actions. As an example, you may hear constant reports on the "shortage of labour" in a certain department. You can deal with it in at least two ways. (1) by examining the personnel records to check the statements, or (2) by having a check record of the shortages not cleared by that department at, say, weekly intervals.

I have often found that some supervisors continually complained of labour shortage as a habit, but the check record showed me that we were maintaining our position and there was no likelihood of sudden collapse.

A machine shop may blame the purchasing department for inability to deliver the material. It is easy to have prepared a check record of purchasing deliveries against shortages which can, in a broad sense, give another angle on the situation and challenge the machine shop statement. These checks are usually simple to compile as they don't go into individual items but merely deal with "numbers of shortages" which, whether the individual items are large or small, have a habit of averaging themselves out over a period. They are simple to assimilate by the manager and, equally important, the supervisors soon know that any loose statement might easily be refuted. Every manager should, on critical statistics, have a "second line

245

of knowledge" to check the more obvious source of information. If others know that he might know the "action" is likely to be greater.

### (F) LET THE SUBORDINATE INVESTIGATE FIRST

This sounds like "passing the buck," but is really an argument for devolution of responsibility under another name. A production report comes to you and some of its features are unsatisfactory. What do you do? One way is to prepare a list of all the things that ought to be done to put the weaknesses right. Another way is to ask the appropriate supervisor "if he is satisfied with the report of his departmental activities, and if not what he has in mind doing about it."

The second way is better managerial practice for the following reasons:

- (a) It forces the supervisor to check results against target in order to confirm whether results are satisfactory or not.
- (b) It forces the supervisor to think out improvements on his own.
- (c) It enables the manager to check the suggestions put forward which invariably means that these can be jointly improved, whereas the managerial suggestions, superimposed on a supervisor, cannot be discussed jointly quite so freely, neither will these be put into force by the supervisor so readily.
- (d) It encourages greater acceptance of subordinate responsibility.

### (G) DIGGING INTO SIGNIFICANT DETAIL

Some years ago, in a paper,[1] I referred to the importance of keeping in touch with significant detail. What is significant detail? I define it as "that detail which, from time to time, appears to be the reason for unsatisfactory performance." For instance, a complete unit is held up because trouble is being experienced with a couple of gears in a sub-assembly. It is not necessary to intervene

[1] Proceedings, Institution of Production Engineers, October, 1936, page 542.

right away, but when things are getting serious the manager should never hesitate to examine the job *on the spot.* Here are a few advantages:

1. It gives him an insight into detail conditions in the shop.
2. It enables those in the shop to see the manager in action on a technical problem, which is a good thing.
3. It revitalizes the job in the eyes of all.

It may be necessary to go back into the office afterwards to finalize the discussion, but at intervals this detailed investigation on the shop floor is a good thing and enables the manager to avoid "letting the business run away from him" which is so easy in all but the smallest firms.

### (H) KEEPING ALIVE THE INDIVIDUAL ENTHUSIASMS

Well-directed and co-ordinated enthusiasms are vital to continuous action, and while enthusiasm is a "personal" characteristic, it can be considerably damped or inspired by organizational procedure. It takes a strong enthusiast to cut through continuous organic bottlenecks. Here are few ways in which enthusiasm can be inspired:

1. Every opportunity given to every person in the company to make suggestions.
2. Prompt consideration given, with rewards adequate to savings, and rejections carefully explained.
3. Prompt *effect* given to accepted suggestions or reasons given why not.
4. Encourage the individual to help in bringing his suggestion into effect.
5. Avoid short-circuiting immediate supervision when discussing suggestions and giving rewards. (They also have a pride in their own successful members.)
6. Encourage departmental pride by publication and discussion of results.
7. Follow up suggestions at reasonable intervals to prove worth.
8. Encourage knowledge that individual initiative is considered in promotion policy, right up to and including the board.
9. See that promotions are carried out by the co-ordinated

ratings of the senior functional heads likely to have the major contacts with the person promoted; the final decision to rest with the immediate supervisor. (I have known of cases where a man has turned up out of the blue and said, "Good morning, I'm your new assistant.")

10. Give each supervisor a share in building up or modifying his own departmental responsibilities.

11. Do not emphasize the importance of one department, group of people, or individual too much out of proportion to the rest. (I once knew a of shop steward who became, through managerial weakness, so "swollen" with responsibilities that in the end it was the manager who "burst"!)

## (I) PLANNING FOR THE EMERGENCY

I knew a manager who was always doing unexpected things like setting alight to a newspaper in a corner and then asking someone to call the works brigade. A very good technique unless carried too far, and indicative of the meaning of this section.

The well-managed firm is unlikely to have many emergencies as they are dealt with before they happen! Sometimes it pays to stimulate an emergency because, as Peter Drucker says, "only by preparing for everything that may happen can we hope to prepare ourselves for the one thing that will happen. Even so, only too often we find that the actual event lies so far outside anything we had considered possible that we are not prepared for it. But at least by having planned for a great many varied alternatives and even conflicting possibilities we shall have learned enough of the technique and of the practical problems involved to master even the unexpected. The first requirement for such an approach is that we understand the principles which must govern our preparations and plans. At the same time we must understand as much as possible of the reality which we shall have to master and to organize according to our principles."[1]

So occasionally, where the stakes are not too high, let the emergency happen and see if the planning is effective. Whether it is or it isn't the results will stick just as the

[1] *The Future of Industrial Man*, by Peter F. Drucker.

piece of music which tells us "the song is ended, but the memory lingers on!"

Just one final thought on emergencies. Don't try to carry out the plan so that too many have to follow behind with a broom, sweeping up the broken procedures! A colleague of mine once said, in relation to being in a hurry, "Speed up the procedure—don't short-circuit it."

### SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 12

This is a short chapter, but a very important one. It is not enough to provide good training, selection, and organization, but, just as a watch needs *continuous winding*, so the manager needs continuous impulses supplied to himself and others in order to provide the dynamic outlook necessary to every worth-while company.

The following "impulses" are worth considering:

    A.  Setting the Target.
    B.  Speeding up the decisions.
    C.  Reactions to criticism.
    D.  Avoiding inconsistency of products.
    E.  Management by Exception.
    F.  Let the Supervisor investigate first.
    G.  Digging into Significant detail.
    H.  Keeping alive the individual enthusiasms.
    I.  Planning for the Emergency.

# THE FUTURE OF MANAGEMENT

*The dawn is breaking, know ye what to do with the day?*
*On morning wings how active springs the mind, that leaves the load of yesterday behind.*
POPE.

I N previous chapters I have tried to show not only what management is, but what sort of person the manager should be. To me, therefore, the future of management should be, in a nutshell, the development of management as I see it, practised by the manager as I envisage him. There has, however, been so much discussion in recent months on the "status" of managers that I would like to examine briefly the relationship of the manager to other members of the community, particularly to those who are commonly known as professional men, i.e. *those who are accepted by the community as conforming to a reasonable code of social conduct, and who have a known measure of learning in the profession they practice.*

Now, there is ample evidence that many managers are thinking more highly of their "place in the sun" than ever before. This is perhaps natural as greater reliance has had to be placed on them during the war, with its tremendous industrial expansion and the relative increase in responsibilities and power of the managers, as compared with the "owners." In addition, numerous writers, headed up by the extremely able James Burnham[1] have done their best to swell the growing ego of those actively concerned with managing.

I remember reading *The Managerial Revolution* while on a week's holiday, and whether it was the sea air or the theme of the book, I certainly felt better! When I had more time for consideration I began, however, to feel that, satisfying though it was to find "that the manager is becoming the salt of the earth" I ought really to take some of the statements with a few grains of this salt and say to

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[1] *The Managerial Revolution*, by James Burnham.

myself not "how good I am"—but "how good must I become before I justify my desires."

How good must I become? Here I come to the question of "status" and the possibilities of fixing a "status" which is commonly accepted, together with ways and means of achieving it.

WHAT IS STATUS? It may be defined as "a commonly accepted measure of standing in society."

In the case of certain professions, such as medical, legal, and to a certain extent teaching, we, as members of society, recognize that when dealing with members of these professions we are dealing with those who have satisfied the minimum requirements of a recognized authority on their right to *practise*. Naturally, superimposed over and above these minimum requirements there are qualities and skills varying with the capacity of each practising member. Some may go further than others. In the managerial profession (although I doubt at the moment whether we can call it one) there are no such minimum standards set, at least by a nationally recognized authority; they are certainly not recognized by society. The manager may have satisfied *himself* if he is the owner, or, if a salaried employee, possibly one or more others, who themselves have little qualification as judges. It is not enough to say that practicing management makes you a manager in the "professional" sense.

From this we can deduce two basis requirements to achieve professional status:

(A) A socially recognized authority on industrial management standards.

(B) A minimum practising standard.

Of these, as we have to start somewhere, we should first endeavour to set up (A) in order to achieve (B).

## (A) A SOCIALLY RECOGNIZED AUTHORITY ON INDUSTRIAL MANAGEMENT STANDARDS

I see no such "authority" at the moment in this field. What should be the terms of reference of this authority? Briefly, I feel the following will suffice as a start:

1. To determine nationally the standards of industrial management.
2. To act as an examining body in order to assess the "status" or "measure of standing" of those individuals in industry who voluntarily wish to be graded.
3. To collaborate with similar approved authorities in other countries in order to achieve international agreement.

In (2) I stress the voluntary aspect. I do not think it is desirable, or possible, for every manager (using the broad definition) to be so graded. The important thing is to have machinery for those who wish to put themselves to the test; recognition and wider application would soon come as there is always a demand for quality.

Having considered what the "authority" should do, let us consider how it should be set up.

Here are some suggested requirements:

1. High management qualities among all its members.
2. An up-to-date knowledge of current industrial management *practice* among all its members. (Don't let it be staffed exclusively by consultants.)
3. A rota of members in order to achieve (2).
4. Full-time availability while acting as members, organized possibly on a regional basis.
5. A willingness among boards of directors to allow the authority full opportunity to study a manager or potential manager *actually practising*, so that his standard of performance may be more accurately assessed.
6. The authority to be representative of the principal national "interests" who are concerned with promoting good management, i.e. Capital, through such bodies as Employers Federations; Labour, through the T.U.C.; the State, and a recognized "management group" which might be a State-sponsored, independent council of all the principal Management Institutions, such as the I.I.A. These representatives would not necessarily act on the rating body for grading individual managers; they would see that the rating body did not perform "in vacua," but had full national backing.
7. As the national and international implications of good management are vital to our well-being, the Government should give full support and recognition to the authority,

which would mean ultimately its acceptance among all ranks and grades of society.

Is such a plan possible? I think so, if only we could persuade the Government to take an active interest in promoting and maintaining good industrial management; there are positive signs that such interest is awakening in high quarters. Some may not like the idea expressed in (6) that labour should be represented on the authority. Bringing this down to the individual I don't think I would mind laying myself open to a rating by the representatives of organized labour who work with me. After all, the manager who gets a bad reference from his workpeople is at least as likely to be wrong as they were, and I believe, bringing the matter to a higher plane, the T.U.C. is genuinely interested in promoting good management, although perhaps to date the interest has been somewhat negative.

## (B) A MINIMUM PRACTISING STANDARD

The first thing to examine is the basis of the "standard"; in earlier chapters I have tried to show that the "qualities" of the manager are under three main headings in the following order:

1. Personal qualities.
2. Organizational qualities.
3. Technical qualities.

It is necessary for the "authority" to satisfy itself on the candidate's quality on each of these? Let us see how:

### 1. *Personal qualities*

How are professional men judged in their personal qualities? Usually on the quality of references supplied by the applicant's school and various people of reasonable standing, such as clergy, doctors or legal men; in other words, by other professional men. These references are usually "negative" in the sense that they show (or should) that the person has done no wrong, but they don't (because they can't) say that he will make a good "whatever he wants to be." Now that is not good enough when we deal

with potential managers. I see no really effective way to judge the qualities I list under "personal" (Chapter 2, page 22) except by examining a man actually doing his normal work. There seems no way by which this can be done unless by an authority such as I envisage, which could go in with full support and recognition from all grades associated with the individual.

It may take days of investigation in each case, but is there really any alternative in an assessment of those personal qualities which mean so much in the make-up of a good manager. Certainly, the cost should be willingly borne by any manager who wishes to be rated on a national scale; the returns should pay a good dividend to him.

### 2. *Organizational qualities*

It is possible to judge practically a man's ability as an organizer by the investigation mentioned above. An additional check could be applied by a written and oral test, applied either by "the authority" or perhaps better by one of the recognized management institutions which has its own standards agreed by the "council" of such institutions, as mentioned earlier. This would mean that every grade of membership in these institutions would need a minimum qualifying standard, judged by examinations in each managerial quality. Membership would involve passing each examination, whether they be "investigation on the job," oral or written word. Only by such a comprehensive standard will membership really mean status.

### 3. *Technical qualities*

More than any other, this minimum standard can be judged by previous experience. The individual trained, as I envisage in Chapter 11, page 209, would, after training, receive tangible proof of his standard, both practical and theoretical; his "journeyman" experience as a technician could also be reasonably checked. Here again the appropriate technical institutions must establish comparable standards.

What does the manager get after qualifying? Possibly some recognized titles could be devised to indicate the particular standard set (there may be two or three for varying grades of management). There is really no reason why the existing grades of membership of the management institutions should not be used, although they would obviously mean more than at present, and would have to be unified to a greater extent.

Perhaps all this doesn't satisfy those who want the manager put with those professional men who are not allowed even to practise before receiving the appropriate authority. They want each one of us to have a licence to practise. To me, realizing that even street hawkers have a licence and that "managers" are really more difficult to assess than most other people, the "compulsory" aspect does not appeal—I think we shall have a hard enough job getting as far as I have gone in this chapter. There may, however, be a real case for greater State control of managerial "quality" in future, as the future of industry, indeed the future trend of social progress will depend so much on its industrial leaders. There are two ways by which "status" may be administered, (*a*) by the Government and (*b*) by the professional body or bodies concerned. Of the two (*b*) should come first because a recognition of individual worth by others of standing in that profession is the first step towards success. Even with State recognition, however, it really comes down to the same thing—every profession (I am not certain of prostitution) must guarantee to the public the competency of its practitioners. In return the public will accord privileged status to the practitioners and only when this two-way recognition has taken place will management be able really to say it is a profession. We are on the right road, but it is a long one.

### THE FUTURE INDUSTRIAL TRENDS

What are the future trends and their impact on management?

The T.U.C. recently stated that their industrial programme after the war would be the attainment of (*a*) the

40-hour week and (*b*) two weeks' holiday with pay. I view (*a*) with some concern as, from practical knowledge of both French and U.S. experience in this direction I am convinced that there is no use in reducing working hours if full utilization of leisure is not available at the same time. From personal observations that was not generally achieved in the two countries mentioned, and to press for a reduction of hours merely to reduce hours is socially wrong.

A more positive approach is to say that work is essential to man's dignity and destiny; that five days or nights per week is a reasonable working period, and that during those working days we must work at the highest level of efficiency, which in my interpretation means under first-class conditions of body and spirit. I think a day of 8 a.m. to 5.30 p.m. is reasonable for any man, which means a working period of 42½ hours per week minimum. I believe this gives ample time for leisure.

The holiday claim has my full support and should apply particularly to those under 21.

It must be remembered that the T.U.C. will press for these concessions "without loss of earnings" and if granted, the efficiency of industry must be raised by possibly 5–6 per cent to pay for them alone.

*The main responsibility will fall on the managers,* and once again stresses the importance of improving their quality so that social progress may be obtained through industrial proficiency.

I could dwell on other social demands, such as the Beveridge (or similar) plan, the extension of pension liabilities, and so on, but as the whole of my managerial outlook is based on a policy of "full employment" they have really been covered in a previous chapter, and are referred to here only to stress the trend of thought and action among large groups of our people. It is of great importance to realize that, with the arrival (indeed the approach) of peace we are unlikely to retain that overwhelming "sense of purpose" which has bound the nation together in war. There will be a greater emphasis on, and less acceptance of minor mal-adjustments; controls of every kind will be

condemned and the weakening of the national "binder" called, among other names, *patriotism*, will tend towards a weakening of company loyalty and individual responsibility. There are already signs in this direction. Once again the managers must accept full responsibility for creating a company, an industrial, loyalty, capable of acting as an anchor to those who have been cast loose, so that each individual can associate himself with the purpose of his group. It is not an easy task.

Because we may work only forty-odd hours per week in future does not for one moment minimize the importance of a period which is almost 40 per cent of our waking life. The factory, its conditions, its worth-whileness, its place in the community, must be accepted by all who work in it (and their dependants) if they are to be provided with a full life, and to assume, as some do, that with shorter working hours the factory job is merely a necessary but doubtful interlude between more pleasurable things outside, is very wrong. It is an essential part of our full life and must be organized as such by its leaders. This is true industrial efficiency.

There are two special aspects of our social outlook in the future which are worth emphasizing once again because they are so important:

     (1) The returning warriors.
     (2) The sub-normals.

Of (1) I will say little, although they deserve much. To them we have real responsibilities in retraining and rehabilitation. All the qualities and experiences of the managers will be needed to solve smoothly this task, although I believe it is only special in degree and not in principle, and is likely to be solved by the same sort of good management as is capable of tackling other problems.

Of (2) I will apologize for mentioning this after dealing with it fully in a previous chapter. Mr. Bevin recently said:

> The idea of maintaining people in idleness was a thing that had to go. I am not very much concerned on a strictly accurate economic basis whether a handicapped person produces

the total value of a fit person, but what I am concerned about is that he produces what he consumes. If he produces only 75 per cent of what he consumes, there is only 25 per cent cost to the community.

Hitherto we have always counted everything in money value. We must now count it in goods and service. We have lost our overseas investments, pawned them, sold them, and depreciated them, and after the war we shall have to live on our annual production year by year.[1]

He is right, but—our annual production must be efficient and once again we stress the fact that you "cannot get something from nothing."

I believe, with Mr. Samuel Courtauld[2] and Mr. J. G. Crowther[3] that production is the most vital activity of the nation, and have tried to show the ways and means by which overall productive efficiency must be increased to bear the many burdens which social progress places upon us. Emerson said, "it takes a pound to produce a pound"; we must see that all are encouraged to put into the company what they want to take out from it. This is a most vital task when the tendency is in so many ways to take rather than to give.

I have tried to show the sort of manager I feel will best be able to shoulder the responsibilities of the future, where I hope a greater emphasis will be placed on freedom *for* responsibility rather than freedom from it. The manager will more than ever stand in the key position between Labour, Capital and State. Of them all he is likely to be, with respect but not subservience, the one best able to serve the others, according to their deserts, which means that he will truly serve the whole community.

In concluding this book I am all too conscious of the vast field I have endeavoured to cover and my own limitations in doing it. I am reminded of Miss Cassidy, who said: "T'was a fine sermon His Reverence gave us on the beauties of married life, Mrs. Malone." "It was that. Sure, I wish I knew as little about the matter as His Reverence!"

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[1] *The Times*, February 11th, 1944.     [2] *Economic Journal.*
[3] *An Outline of the Universe.*

I hope the future manager will not be unduly depressed by the broadness of scope and understanding I think he should possess, but that he will face the future with courage and optimism, saying with Bridges:

> We sail a changeful sea through halcyon days and storm,
> And when the ship laboureth our steadfast purpose
> Trembles like us the compass in a binnacle.
> Our stability is but balance, and wisdom lies
> In masterful administration of the unforeseen.

THE END

# APPENDIX A

Agenda for a typical LINK MEETING, ARISING FROM A MANAGEMENT MEETING.

COMPANY POLICY:

    430  Suggestion scheme.

    495  Payment for visits to personnel representatives and surgery.

    531  Works notices.

    535  Inefficient supervisors.

PERSONNEL POLICY:

    528  Recent wage negotiations.

    536  Lessons learned from Contract —.

    477  Education classes.

    513  Appeal cases.

SUPERVISORY PROCEDURE:

    494  Relationship between supervisors and personnel representatives.

    533  Merit and job rating.

PRODUCTION POLICY:

    500  Overall production.

    510  Scrap drive progress.

GENERAL:

    484  Pay-as-you-earn.

    505  New forms.

(Note: The index numbers refer to a previous report on these subjects in Minutes.)

# APPENDIX B[1]

## JOINT COMMITTEE ACTIVITIES

1. Directors and top management must take a real interest in its activities.

[1] International Labour Office report, Series A, No 43—"British Joint Production Machinery," gives a full (perhaps too full for readability) report on the running of J.C.'s.

2. Both parties should place items on the agenda, with the emphasis on constructive ideas rather than grievances.

3. The chairman should spend ample time in preparation for the meeting and should make, early in each meeting, a fairly complete report on any special aspects of company progress. Frequently he should get other management representatives present to give a report on their own specialized activities.

4. A good plan is to go round the table after the review and request comment from *each* member. It tends to avoid the dialogue that sometimes operates between the chairman and one talkative or influential member.

5. When items are placed on the agenda the name of the person putting forward the item to be publicized against it. This, in my experience, tends to avoid every item being introduced by the same person. It spreads responsibility and avoids building up one person at the expense of others.

6. Management representatives are likely to be judged even more critically than normally by their promptness in dealing with joint committee problems.

7. A reasonable representation of management representatives should be on the joint committee. It should not be merely representative of top management and the workers with junior supervision starved out. The latter can get valuable experience from it, even as observers.

8. Managers should realize that the joint committee meeting provides a good platform for the dissemination of information. It is desirable to point out in such cases that the matter is being brought forward "as information." Such examples are holiday notices, and company activities.

9. Specialized subjects like canteen, A.R.P., health, etc., should be dealt with by sub-committees. This broadens the outlook of members, increases their "group" responsibilities, and saves the time of the main committee. It also gives opportunity to "co-opt" management and other representatives who, while not members of the joint committee, are thought worthy of special claim to knowledge or ability. This is a good way to give partial satisfaction to those mentioned on page 160.

10. Such sub-committees should have authority to appoint their own chairman. Don't appoint the sub-committee chairman at the main meeting. It might raise controversy

which is bad for his status. Don't hesitate to recommend a workers' chairman.

11. Endeavour to give each member a specific job to do, and allow reasonable executive decision as an alternative to "advisory" status only.

12. Get off to a prompt start—it gains respect for the "business" qualities of the manager or chairman. A good plan is to have a system of fines for lateness. 2d. per minute for employee representatives and 6d. per minute for management representatives. Proceeds to charity!

13. No overalls to be worn at meetings.

14. Mix up the various representatives around the table; one doesn't want obvious sides.

15. Keep time-limit on meetings—about two to two and a half hours is maximum.

16. Limit number of people present to reasonable number, so that sense of "intimacy" is retained. About fifteen is near maximum.

17. Hold meetings in room with no telephone and reasonable quietness.

18. Always endeavour to give a positive lead to members. Give them something to bite into.

19. Don't hesitate to bring along a specialist who can explain and advise directly on his functional activities. Such people as safety engineers and security officers come to mind.

20. Avoid controversy on *departmental* problems as far as possible. It will create in the mind of the supervisor of that department (who may not be present at the meeting) a greater feeling of co-operation with the aim of the committee. If departmental problems *are* on the agenda, see that the supervisors concerned discuss the angles before the meeting, and preferably are represented at the meeting.

21. Avoid too many by-elections. Organize the annual elections on a high-interest scale; it revitalizes the spirit and gives better status to those elected.

22. The departments represented to be carefully grouped according to types of people employed. This is an important point.

23. The "office" should be represented; it is part of the whole. With this wide representation I have often found it

difficult to judge, purely from words spoken, who is the management and who is the worker representative. Criticism of "wages" or "tooling" will bring forward a prompt response from the *workers'* representatives in those sections. Under these conditions there are no sides, but an encouragement of departmental loyalty. (See also 20, above).

24. Avoid a vote if possible; this means "sides." Agreement without it means integration. On an important subject always get a resolution passed which represents the unanimous view of the committee.

25. Get the minutes out promptly and see that a summary of important points is given ample publicity. Unanimous resolutions to be in capitals.

## APPENDIX C

### HOW CAN WE USE THE SUB-NORMALS?

To:      Mr. X.   (Personnel Superintendent).
From:    J. Jones

I would like to confirm my visit to the Labour Exchange this morning wherein I interviewed 21 men in the hopes of obtaining three labourers, and for your information I am setting out below the reasons for rejecting 19 of these men, with the result that I was able to engage only two.

*Applicant*            *Reasons for rejection*
*Number*

1. Suffering from epileptic fits and may not be employed near machinery.

2. Suffering from duodenal ulcers.

3. Suffering from chronic asthma.

4. Engaged. N.S.O.'s permission sought to dismiss if not strong enough.

5. Refused to accept the job. Refused to give any reason.

6. Cardiac trouble. Liable to die without notice.

7. Refused to work after 5 p.m. any day. Age 63.

8. Must not stand on his feet for more than 15 minutes at one time.

9. Haemophilia; must not be employed in any capacity where it is possible to obtain a cut finger.

10. Due to operation for ulcers, cannot bend or stoop.

11. Hours too long.
12. Ex-tailor. Skin grafted on leg, unable to lift.
13. Not strong enough, must not bend down.
14. Fits. Must not be employed near machinery.
15. Discharged from Army with ulcers. Cannot do night work.
16. Doctor recommends a sitting-down job only. No standing whatever.
17. Chronic bronchitis. Affected by fumes.
18. Suffering from T.B. hip. Impossible to bend or turn.
19. Chest trouble. Can only work in the open air.
20. Engaged. (Sheer desperation)!
21. Suffering from T.B. External job only.

I now no longer envy you your job!

(*Signed*) J. JONES.

## APPENDIX D

## THE FOREMAN AS A MANAGER

In Chapter 1 (page 8) I said that "the scope of management covers every sphere where the activities of one person affect or bear upon the activities of others." And so, on this basis, the foreman, representing the first grade of staff supervision, "manages" his department.

This conception of the junior supervisor as a manager is rather important as there is a tendency among many to regard foreman-ship almost as an end and not a beginning. Perhaps senior managers have indirectly encouraged this attitude by not recognizing the foreman in this broader sense, thereby creating in the latter's mind a feeling that he (the foreman) is something akin to the mud between the steam-roller and the road, or in other words the forgotten man between the top managers and the organized labour, short circuited by both.

If every junior supervisor is chosen on the basis that he is part of "management" then I am sure a broader conception of his position will become apparent to higher management, the rank and file, and the foreman himself. It has been my privilege to expound these views to several groups of supervisors in various parts of the country, and I have found it helpful to illustrate them by a few diagrams, which are shown below.

Consider Fig. 1. The upper part symbolizes the function of management by showing the essentials—a factory, and a movement through it from raw material to finished product. However



FACTORY

MATERIAL BOUGHT → MATERIAL TRANSFORMED → GOODS SOLD

FACTORY DEPARTMENTS
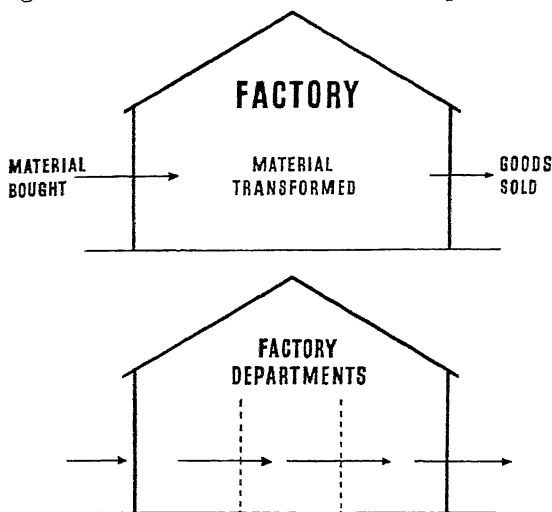
Fig. 1
(By courtesy of *Production and Engineering Bulletin*)

elaborate and involved the industrial reality may be—whether housed in one building or a hundred; whether concerned with one product or a great diversity—the two fundamentals remain. There is always the factory itself, and always the movement through it, and transformation of materials.

The lower part of Fig. 1 reminds us that each department, controlled by our junior supervisor, is a miniature of the whole business; the same essential manufacturing set-up, and the same movement and transformation of materials. Literally a business within a business.

Now let us look at Fig. 2.



A

B

C

GS

INDIVIDUAL

THE OUTLOOK OF THE FOREMAN

THE OUTLOOK OF THE SUPT.

FOREMAN →

THE SCOPE OF MANAGEMENT

THE EXPANDING OUTLOOK OF THE SUPERVISOR

SUPERINTENDENT →
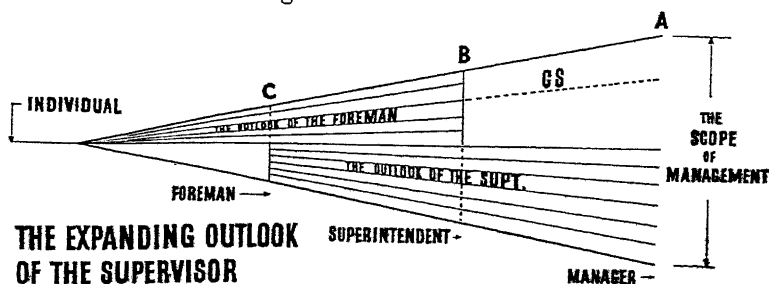
MANAGER →

Fig. 2
(By courtesy of *Production and Engineering Bulletin*)

265

This illustrates an attempt to prove how the functions of the various grades of managers are essentially the same, although they may vary in broadness of scope according to the position held. At the right-hand end (A) we find the full scale panorama representing higher managerial scope. At each intermediate point B and C the same panorama as covered by higher management is seen with merely a reduction in scope. Every function controlled by the general manager is carried down in lesser degree to other grades. For instance, the "functional" line marked C.S. represents the necessity for control of scrap, which as an item is just as necessary to control in the foreman's "department" as in the general manager's "factory." The difference is not in outlook but in scope.
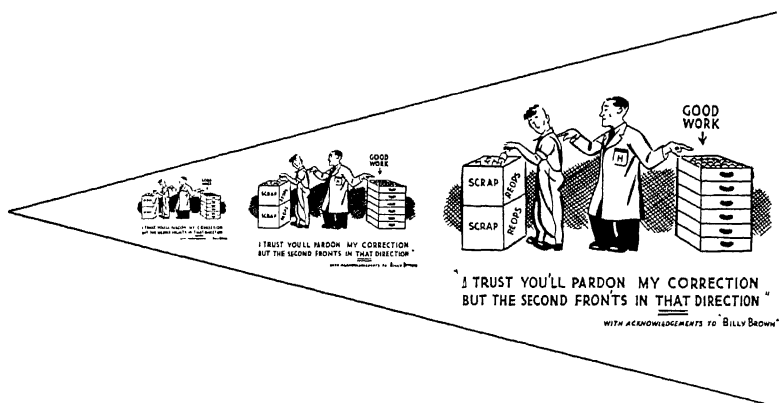


Fig. 3.

Fig. 3 illustrates the point still further in the field of scrap. The same expanding lines are shown as in Fig. 2, and at the higher managerial end a cartoon has been placed which was used in a factory initiating a drive on scrap. Towards the converging end of the lines the same cartoon is shown but on a smaller scale, as seen through the wrong end of a telescope. *Every element of the larger cartoon is shown in the smaller one,* illustrating how the interests of senior and junior managers towards the problem of scrap are identical except only in scope.

So with other functions—of production, costs, overheads, personnel problems, making a profit, co-operation with others, and so on. The modern top manager regards his juniors as potential seniors—the modern junior regards himself as on the ladder, with many rungs still to climb, but the way up restricted only by his own limitations. Look back again to Fig. 2. Here you

266

see how the "outlook" lines of the foreman extend through C right up to B. What does this mean? It means that every worth-while foreman must project his outlook forward to at least the next highest grade above, so that should the opportunity arise he will be prepared for greater responsibilities. Too many, I am afraid, think they can wait until the higher job becomes vacant. It very rarely does—for them!

## APPENDIX E

## THE ORGANIZATION OF A JOINT SUGGESTION SCHEME

Most live companies have a Suggestion Plan, and literally hundreds of articles have been written about them. For the benefit of those interested here are details of two types of suggestion schemes put in on a joint basis—that is as a logical extension to the activities of a joint committee operated by the company and its workers.

### SCHEME I

This was applied in a dispersal works of about 1,000 people, where formerly suggestions were cleared from the boxes and sent at intervals to the secretary of the suggestions committee at headquarters.

It was thought that better results could be achieved by shortening "lines of contact" and increasing local interest. A "local" suggestions committee was appointed with the following membership—all from the dispersal factory:

| | |
|---|---|
| *Chairman:* | Works Manager or his assistant. |
| *Secretary:* | Office Manager. |
| also: | Chief Production Engineer. |
| | Superintendent of department from which suggestion received.[1] |
| | Two joint committee workers' representatives[2] |

The procedure was for the secretary to call weekly meetings, having previously circulated copies of each suggestion received (with names of suggesters omitted). Each supervisory representative[1] is called in to deal only with those suggestions from his own department, so that at a meeting there might be three or four supervisors called in for brief periods. No workers'

representative[2] is present when his own suggestion is considered (as occasionally happened).

The committee (often after a visit to the department concerned) finally makes it recommendations of reward, leave over, or reject. Award recommendations are sent to the general manager who, in co-operation with the chairman of the headquarters committee, O.K.'s them, after which the awards are handed out by the works manager of the dispersal factory, in conjunction with the supervisor concerned. Award lists are then publicized, and copies of the successful suggestions sent to all members of the head-quarters committee so that they may consider their wider application.

Rejections are the subject of an explanatory letter sent from the local secretary to each unsuccessful suggester.

Every six months the best six suggestions are picked out by the local committee and are the subject of major awards which are presented by the chairman at the next meeting of the joint committee of the dispersal factory, each winner being asked to explain briefly his winning idea.

*The results.* From a previous average of 13 per month the number took a sharp upward turn and now averages 50 per month, with the percentage of winners remaining at about 26. The promptness of dealing with suggestions has been improved and the putting into effect of winners definitely speeded up through the joint enthusiasm of all parties. As a matter of interest, the progress department is basically responsible for seeing that they are put into effect, but its task is made easier by an improvement in the general attitude of workers and supervisors towards the scheme.

SCHEME 2

This was applied in a works employing several thousands and was operated formerly by a committee comprising:

Chairman: A member of the Board.
Secretary: Office Executive.
Representatives of Works.
            Outside Service.
            Design and Research.
            Sales.
            Office.

The committee met fortnightly to consider suggestions which were previously circulated. The majority came from the works

side and consequently the works representative was overworked and tended to give insufficient attention to each. If a query arose, therefore, he would often ask for a decision to be left over until the next meeting, which caused dissatisfaction among many of those who had submitted ideas, as well as creating a feeling in the minds of works supervisors that works representation on the committee was disproportionately small.

A modified plan was instituted along these lines:

Each "floor area" of the company's factory, whether it be works, office, canteen, etc., was defined and a suggestions sub-committee (A.C.) formed in each area, the constitution being:

1. *Chairman:*  Superintendent of that area. (Rota if more than one superintendent per "area.")
2. *Secretary:*  Progress Dept. representative (actually a full time Sec. was appointed from Progress.)
3. *Production Engineering*  (or other technical representative if *Dept. representative:*  Prod. Eng. not operating there).
4. *Joint Committee Workers' representative (or Deputy).*
5. *Personnel Department area representative.*
6. At least one member of junior supervision in area (on rota).

The A.C. had power to co-opt, if necessary.

Suggestions are collected by the secretary of the Central Suggestions Committee and circulated to (*a*) all members of central committee and (*b*) secretary of area committees from which suggestions emanated. The A.C. meets weekly and is usually able to decide promptly, with very few "left overs."

The job of the central committee is now that of reviewing the A.C. recommendations, which are explained in greater detail than was previously possible, with a consequent speed-up in settlement.

Rejections are explained to the suggesters by the chairman of each A.C. Awards are sent by the central secretary to the appropriate management member (works, office, etc.) who, in conjunction with the superintendent of the department concerned, hands over the awards personally to the winners.

The names of all winners are publicized on the suggestion boxes afterwards, together with statistics (by department) which are given to the joint committee at intervals.

A major award plan also operates, much along the lines of the one mentioned earlier under scheme 1.

The results of this new system are not yet wholly apparent,

although it has been enthusiastically received. An indirect gain has been the greater facilities given for decentralizing chairmanship and membership of the various meetings. The supervisory qualities of many people are enhanced and a greater appreciation of the value of suggestions, together with a growth of "area" co-operation among various functional people, has been promoted.

## APPENDIX F

## SOME NOTES ON THE CONFERENCE METHOD OF TRAINING SUPERVISORS AND MANAGERS

In Chapter 11 (page 222) I referred to the importance of setting up supervisory and managerial training plans within the company. After some considerable experience in this direction I feel that these notes may be of value to those who wish to compare their own experiences with mine; I certainly hope that those who have done nothing will be encouraged to make a start in this most important managerial responsibility.

### THE CONFERENCE METHOD

As its name implies, this method of training brings together a chosen number of supervisors at frequent intervals. The leader, usually that individual in the company in charge of training, is responsible for the preparation and execution of a plan which involves a series of talks, discussions, visits, reports, designed individually and collectively to increase the experience and broaden the outlook of all taking part.

*The Syllabus*

This can be varied to suit circumstances; a typical one is shown below, extending over 22 weeks:

Discussion No.

1—The Foreman as a Manager.
2—The Control of Personnel.
3—The Supervisor as a Teacher.
4—"Case" problems set in 1, 2 and 3.
5—Keeping to Schedule.
6—Works Visit and Discussion.
7—Handling Materials.
8—"Case" problems set in 5 and 7.
9—Review of progress to date.

10—Motion Economy.
11—Quality Control.
12—The pros and cons of Incentive Systems.
13—"Case" problems set in 10, 11 and 12.
14—The personal qualities of a Supervisor.
15—Works visit and discussion.
16—Personnel Management.
17—"Case" problems set in 14 and 16.
18—The Value of Costs.
19—The Care of Equipment.
20—The meaning of Organization.
21—"Case" problems set in 18, 19 and 20.
22—Review of progress, and suggestions for improving Course.

It will be seen that there are thirteen basic subjects dealt with, each covering a definite field of supervisory control and designed to give members a fairly intimate glimpse into the principal functions of the company. Each subject is introduced in an approximate order of priority, with No. 1 (The Foreman as a Manager)—see Appendix D—starting the course off on a broad note.

At the end of each of these discussions a paper is given to each member containing a number of questions relating to the subject. There is also a "case" problem stated and each member is expected to turn in his answers to the questions and his views on the "case" problem by a given time prior to the next meeting. These answers are marked and commented upon by the speaker, who also summarizes in writing his opinion of the general standard of replies to the questions.

After two or three such specific discussion meetings a whole session is devoted to a thorough examination of the preceding "case" problems.

At least two works visits are organized by the members during the session, and at least two meetings devoted to a review by members of the progress made, with, at the end, a critical examination of results, so that any experiences gained are put into force for the next series with a new group of members.

*The selection of members*

Generally, the courses are designed to accommodate the junior staff supervisors and the following points should be borne in mind:

271

(a) The grade of all members should be approximately similar.
(b) There should be representation from as many departments (or factories, if more than one) as possible.
(c) The number participating should be limited to about 15.
(d) Each should be a volunteer.

## The selection of speakers

This is of great importance as we find so few people capable of putting over the subject-matter in an interesting manner. Generally speaking, the chief of the department concerned with the function being discussed (or his deputy) should be the man chosen, as status is respected by the members. Sometimes the heads are not too good at putting the subject over, but as a manager ought to be a good teacher it is desirable to attempt to improve the teaching qualities of the top men rather than delegate the lecturing to juniors.

Some seniors resent any suggestion that they are not good at putting over their own subject, but I have found the majority willing to learn, particularly after the first session where things didn't go too well. Verily, the speakers were trained by this method as well as the members! The improvement in technique between the first session and the next was considerable.

The following points are worth noting by potential speakers:

(a) The talk should be thoroughly prepared some time in advance (Don't insult the audience by lack of preparation.)
(b) It should last about 45 minutes.
(c) It should be sub-divided into headlines and informally presented under each headline rather than reading in full. Only the most important passages should be read.
(d) It is most important to draw on your practical experience and interpose as many actual examples as you can fit in, to illustrate your points. These examples anchor the principles in the minds of your audience. Remember also that listening only is not the best way to learn—let them see charts, models, drawings, etc., which help them to learn through the eyes and other senses.
(e) Remember that their ignorance of your speciality may be profound, and marshal your principles together in simple form, so that these principles, backed up by practical examples, taken preferably from the internal sphere, are easily understood.
(f) If, during the discussion, you promise to do something later—do it.
(g) Realize that this training job is a vital one to the company

and to your department, not only because some of those present may be your own people, but also because their attitude to you as a trainer is likely to confirm their attitude to you as a manager, and through you to your department and its status. If you look at it this way you will prepare better, talk better, mark better.

*The organization of the Course*

Here are some hints to bear in mind when considering the actual running of a course:

*General*

(*a*) The responsibility for organization must be vested in one person, who must be respected by the members.

(*b*) The syllabus should be drawn up by him and approved by top management.

(*c*) All members of supervision should be acquainted with details before each session starts, and departmental heads asked to submit names of volunteers.

(*d*) The final list of accepted members to be reviewed by top management in conjunction with the trainer and the personnel manager. It isn't necessarily the worst supervisors who should be selected. It is just as important to make good men better.

(*e*) Senior supervisors should clearly understand that the juniors selected have every facility for time off, and for asking questions in order to answer papers.

*The time and place*

(*f*) A quiet room, not too large, is desirable, and conditions should be conducive to concentration on the job in hand. The usual blackboard, and ancillary fittings, is necessary.

(*g*) The time found best is usually a day when special departmental problems, like pay receipts, are absent, and the members can leave the department with a clear conscience. The period of day found best is about 3.30 p.m. so that about two hours can be devoted to the meeting, leaving time for tea if overtime is worked, or a free evening if not. Nightshift foremen participating are usually given facilities to go home earlier that morning, so that a good sleep is had before coming in to the meeting.

*The meeting procedure*

(*h*) The chairman is usually the chief trainer (although this can rotate) and he usually occupies the first ten or fifteen minutes in reviewing the high-spots of the last discussion, using the notes prepared by the previous speaker. The assistant gives each member his marked paper.

(i) The speaker is introduced and gives his paper.

(j) Free discussion then takes place, with the high-spots taken down in shorthand by the assistant and later sent to the speaker as a reminder and guide for the future.

(k) Summing-up is undertaken by any member called upon by the chairman. (After the first meeting no prior warning is given.)

(l) Question papers are given out and an informal discussion usually takes place between a few of the enthusiasts and possibly the speaker and trainer.

(m) At frequent intervals during the week various members discuss odd points with the trainer and occasionally, by arrangement, with the speaker.

(n) Finally, the speaker for the next ordinary meeting is always present, so that he can absorb the "atmosphere" in advance.

*"Case Problem" procedure*

I attach great importance to this part of supervisory training (see also page 224). The "cases" are usually taken from internal experience, and are chosen because of their general managerial interest, and with an eye on the statement of principles which can be applied by members to other problems likely to be met by them.

As stated before, a problem is set each week for written solution. Each two or three weeks a whole session is devoted to consideration of those set earlier, and the appropriate higher managerial members are present who set and had experience of the "cases" under discussion.

The procedure is for each case to be taken in order, and the member who made the best written reply is asked to state verbally his solution. A general discussion then takes place and finally the person who set the case sums up and gives his own solution.

The other "cases" on the agenda are then disposed of in like manner, each usually taking up to an hour of full discussion and summing up. It is usually a most profitable period to all concerned, with an added interest in the domestic nature of the actual problem.

*Works Visits*

The works visits are organized to bring a practical atmosphere occasionally into the group activities. A draw is made which decides the group member who will act as host to the others, who are conducted around the host's section (or department), often

with the help of other supervisory members of the same department. After the tour, and over tea and light refreshments, the others comment on or criticize the department visited, each criticism tempered by the fact that the critic may be host next time!

*Checking results*

Records are kept of marks gained in a variety of ways, such as written and oral work, punctuality at meetings, punctuality in turning in papers, etc. These results are reviewed at least twice during the session by higher management and represent another guide to the better selection of supervisors.

CONCLUSIONS:

After a shaky start, when most were sceptical and volunteers were few, the plan has progressed steadily, with members emphatic on its value. It seems to possess a reasonable blending of written and oral expression, of individual and group action, of theory and practice, of functional and company responsibilities.

Add to this the opportunities given for mutual acquaintanceship between junior supervisors and senior managers, and not least the training it gives to the seniors, and its place with other methods in the broad training plan of the company will be undisputed by all who have participated in it.

For valuable hints on the practical details of training plans see:

1. *Training Operators for Machine Shops*, by National Institute of Industrial Psychology.
2. T.W.I. (Training Within Industry) literature published by the War Manpower Commission, U.S.A.
3. *Factory Training Manual*, published by Management Publications.

# INDEX

276

# INDEX

# INDEX

279